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FACULTY OF GRADUATE STUDIES AND RESEARCH

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PRINCIPAL LEADERSHIP STYLE AND SCHOOL EFFECTIVENESS IN ENGLISH AND FRENCH ELEMENTARY SCHOOLS

by
ROBERT E. LAVERY

(C)

A THESIS

SUBMITTED TO THE FACULTY OF GRADUATE STUDIES

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The undersigned certify that they have read, and recommend to the Faculty of Graduate Studies and Research, for acceptance, a thesis entitled PRINCIPAL LEADERSHIP STYLE AND SCHOOL EFFECTIVENESS IN ENGLISH AND FRENCH ELEMENTARY SCHOOLS, submitted by Robert E. Lavery, in partial fulfillment of the requirements for the degree of Doctor of Philosophy.

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ABSTRACT

Fiedler's Contingency Model of Leadership Effectiveness was tested in two samples of elementary schools, one English-speaking and one French-speaking, in Montreal. The model relates the effectiveness of the group to the interaction between the leader's personal leadership style and the favourability of the leadership situation to the leader.

The study was primarily designed to re-test the Contingency Model in elementary schools. In addition, teachers' perception of principal power was measured. Teachers rated principals relatively high in power. This finding, combined with the assumption that the task of the school group is relatively low in structure, allowed the testing of the model in two groups for each of the French and English samples, one in which the leaders perceived that they were accepted by the group, and the other in which they perceived themselves as less accepted. The schools were rated in effectiveness by district office supervisors. The relationships predicted by Fiedler's theory, between leadership style and effectiveness, were not found in the present study.

However, in the French schools, a relationship was found between leadership style of the principal and favour-

ability as defined by other measures, including the socio-economic location of the school in the city.

The study also examined the relationship between leadership style of the principal and his behaviour as a supervisor in the school; the only support for any of the hypotheses regarding this relationship came from the finding that in the English schools principals allowed more decision-making by teachers.

Differences between the French and English samples were found on several of the variables in the study and on the supervisory practices of the principals. The leadership style of French principals differed significantly from that of English principals, the latter being more directive. French teachers perceived principals to be significantly less powerful than did their English colleagues. English and French principals were found to supervise their staffs differently. French principals communicated more with their staffs, both in person and via the school intercom system. English principals prescribed teaching methods more than did French principals. While there was no apparent cultural source for these differences, it is tentatively suggested that they may be related to differences in other factors which may themselves have a cultural basis: French principals

as a group are less directive than are English principals; English teachers have less professional training than do French teachers; French teachers perceive principals to have less power than do English teachers.

Differences in the supervisory behaviour of male and female principals were found in the English samples. Female principals were more directive than were males and had more satisfied staffs in their schools.

It was concluded that the leadership variable in Fiedler's theory may have significance for school effectiveness. Its further use, however, should be accompanied by a more elaborate definition of favourability of the situation, taking into account at least some of the variables suggested in this study, such as the socio-economic district in which the schools are located, the degree of professionalization of the staffs, and sex-congruence of principal and staff.

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CHAPTER I

THE PROBLEM

I. INTRODUCTION

The present study was primarily concerned with the problem of leadership style appropriate in the elementary school, a problem of general interest in the field of educational administration.

This problem centres upon which of several possible approaches to supervision is most appropriate for the principalship, or in which situation one approach might be more effective than another. Is the principal to be a directive, rule-enforcing head of a team of relatively passive subordinates? Or is he to be the most knowledgeable member of a group of professionals, engaged in advising them, motivating them and supporting them in what is generally agreed to be a creative, potentially anxiety-laden task? Or are there situational factors which would determine which style would be most appropriate?

The role of principal is generally agreed to be one of supervision. The implication of this view is, often, that he is not be be an overt bearer of organizational power. Yet principals in many systems are required to

supervise their teachers actively by frequently visiting classrooms, giving pedagogical directions and assessing teacher performance. These two sets of expectations may seem to be incompatible. Yet there is little evidence that this is indeed the case. It may well be that in some schools a highly directive principal is required to achieve the coordination that is essential for a productive school program. It may be that in other situations a different approach, more permissive and supportive would be called for. And there is, of course, the possibility that in any given school the principal would be expected to be directive on some occasions or issues, permissive on others, or to vary his style depending on the individual with whom he is dealing. It is further possible that all of these factors vary with culture such that French principals behave and are expected to behave differently from their English colleagues.

The study was secondarily concerned with this possibility that leadership style and its correlates might vary with culture. Are the circumstances which dictate a given style in English schools the same as those in French schools? Are directive principals, for example more successful in French schools than in English schools? Is

the attributed power of principals in French schools higher or lower or the same as that of principals in English schools? If such differences exist, it will be important that they be taken into consideration in the allocation of staff to schools or administrative units comprised of individuals from both cultures, a development likely to occur in the near future in Montreal schools.

II. PURPOSE

The purpose of the present study was to test the applicability to elementary schools of a theory of leadership effectiveness which was developed by Fred E. Fiedler of the University of Washington.(5) The theory had previously been applied with some success to elementary schools in Alberta by Vincent McNamara.(10)(11). The present study sought to confirm the applicability of Fiedler's model by testing it in two samples of elementary schools, one English and one French, in Montreal.

In addition to testing the theory, this study also examined the incidence of occurrence of certain supervisory behaviours of directive and permissive elementary principals (leaders), as defined by the theory. These were supervisory practices identified by McNamara as being associated

with directiveness-permissiveness of principals.(10)

In his studies, McNamara made certain assumptions about the formal power of elementary principals, assumptions which subsequently appeared questionable in the light of his findings. The present study measured the power of elementary principals as it is perceived by teachers, the presumed subjects of this power in schools and applied the theory in the light of this measurement.

The final purpose of the study was to examine the possibility of cultural differences in the perceptions and behaviours of French and English principals and teachers.

III. THE PROBLEM AND SUB-PROBLEMS

THE PROBLEM

The purpose of the study was to replicate, with minor modifications, a previous application to research in school leadership of a measure of leadership style (LPC) which has been demonstrated to have high validity and reliability. Besides McNamara's studies of principal leadership, the attitude measure used has been employed successfully to predict the effectiveness of leaders in small laboratory groups, and perhaps more importantly in

a wide range of real-life organizations.

The present study investigated the relationship between the attitude measure, Esteem for Least Preferred Co-worker (LPC), and the effectiveness of schools - the basic relationship predicted from the Fiedler theory. It also examined the relationship between LPC and the behaviour of principals, specifically the incidence of supervisory practices of permissive and directive principals. The Leader Position Power (LPP) of principals was measured by gauging the teachers' perception of his power directly, rather than by asking outside experts to estimate his power in comparison with other leadership positions in other organizations. Differences between the two cultural groups were sought and their implications examined.

THE SUB-PROBLEMS

(1) Do principals in elementary schools enjoy high Position Power, or are they relatively powerless in this respect so that they must rely upon persuasion, rather than the ability to coerce, to affect the behaviour of their staffs?

(2) Are there specific supervisory behaviours that characterize those principals who exhibit the personality trait or attitude measured by Esteem for Least-Preferred

Co-worker (LPC) scores?

(3) Is principal control style the independent variable influencing school effectiveness, contingent upon the principal's perception of staff acceptance of him?

(4) Are there differences between the style of principal leadership and supervision found in French and English elementary schools? Do for example, the two types of leader (high and low LPC) behave similarly in French and English schools? Does the occurrence of these leadership styles have the same relationship to effectiveness in both school systems?

IV. SIGNIFICANCE OF THE PROBLEM

After several decades of research into principal leadership, it can be said that we are still some distance from the ability to use empirically derived knowledge of the many factors that determine effective leadership in the allocation of personnel to the post of principal or to the description of the role expectations appropriate to it. Commentators are already predicting the disappearance of the principalship unless something is done to give clearer direction to its potential as a leadership position in the full sense of the term.(2,123) One of the reasons advanced for this state of affairs is the growing demand

of teachers for power, which is linked to the growth of professional competence and its concomitant sense of self-reliance.(2,123)(14)

If the principal is to be something more than a local manager concerned primarily with the routine tasks of management, the question arises as to what style of leadership is most appropriate for his position. This is not a problem peculiar to educational administration; theorists in general administration have been concerned with it for some time.(16)

McGrath and Altman detect two principal areas of concentration which have been the focus of most psychological research in the area.(8) They point out that these have been labelled autocratic, authoritarian, task-oriented and initiating on the one hand; versus democratic, equalitarian, permissive, group-oriented and considerate on the other hand. These polarities are reflected in a variety of ways in which leadership is described.

The Ohio State Leadership studies have reduced leader behaviour to essentially two dimensions: "Consideration" and "Initiating Structure" which reflect McGrath and Altman's suggested dichotomy.(13)

Cartwright and Zander have also described leadership

in terms of two sets of group functions, namely Group Maintenance and Goal Achievement.(1,496) The Group Maintenance function includes behaviours such as keeping interpersonal relations pleasant, resolving disputes, providing encouragement and stimulating self-direction. The Goal Achievement function includes behaviours such as keeping members' attention on the goal, developing a plan, evaluating the quality of work done and making expert opinion available.

While there is seemingly wide agreement of the possible forms of leader behaviour, the question of which form is predominantly called for in a given group situation and hence still remains to be answered by empirical investigation. Theorists offer a variety of propositions which might be tested in such investigations. For example, Etzioni proposes that the need for close supervision will be less as the participants in an organization internalize the norms of behaviour of the organization.(4,3-67)

Peabody, in a study of authority in three organizations, found that a larger proportion of teachers perceived the basis of authority in the school to reside in their professional competence than did either welfare workers or policemen.(11,129) The principal ranked second as a source

of authority in the schools studied by Peabody, and ran his school "democratically".

MacKay's finding that certain aspects of bureaucracy such as the use of hierarchical authority and reliance on written rules and procedural specification were related to decline in productivity, reinforces the belief that schools are staffed by professionals in Etzioni's sense.(9)

Moeller, on the other hand, found that teachers in schools characterized by a greater degree of bureaucracy had a greater sense of power than those in less bureaucratic schools.(11)

These findings, which seem to conflict with one another, indicate that effective leadership is related to factors other than the degree of internalization of norms by the participants. For example, McNamara found that effective elementary schools were those in charge of directive principals, where these were accepted by staffs, regardless of the level of commitment of the staffs.(10,192)

The model used by McNamara in his studies was one developed by Fred E. Fiedler at the University of Illinois. It is the fruit of nearly twenty years of leadership study with a wide varitey of organizations.(5)(6) The model proposes the classification of organizations in terms of

favourableness of the situation for leadership and hence of the suitability of directive or permissive leadership. The group dimensions that have emerged from these studies as being important have been: leader-group relations, the complexity of the group task, and leader-position power.

Instruments for the measurement of these dimensions have been developed and have proven useful in a wide variety of organizations, including schools, in the case of the McNamara studies already cited.

The most important of these measures, the leader's degree of directiveness-permissiveness, is ascertained through the Least Preferred Co-worker (LPC) instrument. The quality measured by this instrument is a stable one that has been shown to be related to the degree of directiveness of a leader and to the effectiveness of the group, contingent on the leader's acceptance by the group.

The present study employed these instruments, with a modification of the use of the instrument designed to measure the position power of the leader, together with instruments that have been developed for, and used in schools, to examine the conditions governing effective supervisory style and practice in certain Montreal elementary schools.

V. DEFINITION OF TERMS, ASSUMPTIONS, LIMITATIONS AND DELIMITATIONS

DEFINITION OF TERMS

Supervisory behaviour. This refers to the principal's behaviour in the supervision of his staff; that is, the regular activities by which he supervises in the school.

Directive supervision. This is a style of supervision that is managing and directing. The directive supervisor is less concerned with his relations with the group than in coordinating task-relevant aspects of the group situation.(5,138)

Permissive supervision. A style of supervision that is manifested by the desire for good interpersonal relations. Permissive leaders are less concerned with directing and controlling the activities of the group members on task-relevant matters.(5,138)

Effectiveness. Is defined as the success of the school, relative to other schools. Effectiveness was judged by the rating of each school by a system supervisor, in terms of its over-all success compared with other schools in the system familiar to the rater.

Effective-permissive principals. Were considered to be those whose schools were rated above the median

on effectiveness and whose scores were above the median on LPC.

Effective-directive principals. Were those whose schools were rated above the median on effectiveness and whose scores on LPC were below the median LPC score.

Group Atmosphere (GA). The degree to which the principal feels accepted by the group and relaxed and at ease in his role. This was measured by the Group Atmosphere instrument, completed by the principal.

Leader position power. The amount of power attaching to the office of the principalship, regardless of which individual holds the office. This was measured by the Leader Position Power (LPP) instrument completed by the staffs of the schools. It is construed as including his power of professional competence as well as his power to manipulate rewards and punishments.

English-Catholic schools. Are elementary schools in which the primary language of instruction is English and the professed religion is Roman Catholic. Teachers and principals in these schools have been educated in similar schools themselves, trained in distinct Teachers Colleges, and are supervised exclusively by persons of their language and religion.

French-Catholic schools. Are elementary schools in which the primary language of instruction is French and the professed religion is Roman Catholic. The majority of teachers and principals in these schools have themselves been educated in such schools, have been trained in distinct Normal Schools and are supervised by persons of their own religion and language.

ASSUMPTIONS

(1) It was assumed that the LPC instrument measures a trait or attitude which can be modified, if at all, only after a great deal of training.

(2) Task structure in elementary schools was assumed to be low.

(3) It was assumed that the educational product is, among other things, a group product depending on the interaction between staff and principal.

(4) It was assumed that the schools and principals in the sample are potentially equivalent in terms of effectiveness.

(5) It was assumed that the judgements of school system supervisors are valid and reliable measures of the effectiveness of the schools judged.

(6) It was assumed that the leader position power

instrument is a valid measure of this dimension.

LIMITATIONS

(1) The most serious limitation of the study is the effectiveness ratings of the schools. Such ratings are far less reliable and valid than those used by Fiedler in his studies; ratings such as team scores or company profits. Not only are they based on less readily defensible criteria, but in this particular case, were based on the judgement of individuals, each of whom was familiar with one segment of the school system in particular. However, all of these judges have served for many years as elementary school teachers and school principals in the Montreal Catholic system. They have thus been professionally socialized in the same system and so could be expected to hold in common many views as to the nature of a good elementary school in that system.

(2) The measures used in the study are relative only. Effectiveness, permissiveness, and power will be high or low in relation to that of others in the system. The least effective schools, for example, may still be very good schools.

DELIMITATION

The study was limited to all the English elementary schools and to a sample of 68% of the French elementary schools of the Montreal Catholic School Commission.

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CHAPTER II

REVIEW OF RELATED LITERATURE AND RESEARCH

I. SUPERVISION

The need for supervision of participants in organizations stems from the organization's need for control. Control is defined by Etzioni as "the formally institutionalized allocation of rewards and penalties to enhance compliance with their norms, regulations, and order."(10,650) That organizations need control is attributed to the heterogeneity of the human participants.(7,1) More specifically, Argyris attributes the need for control to the necessity to coordinate and direct the activities of specialists working at molecular tasks so that they mesh effectively to achieve the organization's objectives.(2,34) In other words, organizations need to define the behaviour of their participants so that a certain degree of uniformity may be achieved. Perhaps the commonest way organizations attempt to achieve a desirable level of control is to carefully structure the relationships between the supervisors and those supervised from top to bottom of the organization. Etzioni believes this arrangement to be, in fact, the most central element of the organization-

al structure.(10,650) One such structure that has been important in the development of organizational theory is bureaucracy.

SUPERVISION AND ORGANIZATIONAL STRUCTURE

Max Weber, in defining the "ideal Type" of bureaucracy spelled out its characteristics in some detail. The following four of these details are particularly relevant to the problem of control in organizations.(51,329-330)

(1) A continuous organization of official functions bound by rules.

(2) A specific sphere of competence. This involves (a) a sphere of obligations to perform functions which have been marked off as part of a systematic division of labour; (b) the provision of the incumbent with the necessary authority to carry out these functions; and (c) that the necessary means of compulsion are clearly defined and their use is subject to definite conditions.

(3) The organization of offices follows the principle of hierarchy; that is, each lower office is under the control and supervision of a higher one.

(4) The rules which regulate the conduct of an office may be technical rules or norms. In both cases, if their application is to be fully rational, specialized training is necessary.

Weber believed an organization so characterized to be rational because it meant the exercise of control on

the basis of knowledge.(51,339) Weber expected that appreciation of this rationality would result in the "consistently rationalized, methodically trained and exact execution of the received order, in which all personal criticism is unconditionally suspended . . ."(51,341)

Because of its comprehensive nature, the bureaucratic model has served as the starting point for the empirical investigation of real organizations. Subsequently, researchers found that not all of the characteristics of the "ideal type" were necessarily functional. Various authors posit similar hypothetical reasons for the divergencies found. These can be classified on two bases:

(1) The nature of the organization. Katz and Kahn summarize this position when they point out that:

> The military model adopted in industry and extended with the development of machine technology, seems to us to be overrationalized and urged by its proponents irrespective of organizational nature, purpose and surrounding conditions. There are those who demand that every section of life and every organization be businesslike.(3,214)

Corwin believes that it is because the problems of schools have been defined as similar to those of factories, for example, that schools are assumed to require similar modes of control.(8,432)

Etzioni proposes the idea that it is the control

structure of organizations that differentiates them. His basic premise is that the greater the degree of internalization of the norms of the organization, the less the need for formal provision for the control of the participants.(11)

(2) The behaviour of participants. Gouldner has remarked that Weber failed to weigh the possibility that a bureaucracy's effectiveness or other of its characteristics might vary with the manner in which rules are initiated, whether by imposition or agreement.(24,20) March and Simon, reviewing the findings of Gouldner and others suggest that the "exact execution" referred to in the quotation from Weber above, was not found in these studies because "there is a widely held cultural norm of independence in decision-making that makes at least pro forma participation in decision-making a condition for the acceptance of decisions. . ."(42,54)

Rosengren refers to the non-structural measures used in an organization to achieve control as "strategies of administrative leadership and influence."(48,141) These behaviours have also been referred to as supervisory styles. March and Simon suggest that supervisory styles may be ranged along a continuum: at one extreme, decisions

are made by the supervisor and communicated to the workers without prior consultation; at another extreme, decisions are made on the basis of free and equal discussion.(42)

These two suggested means towards the attainment of control are not mutually exclusive. Rosengren suggests that

> While structural arrangements may define the limits within which participants must act, the potential for supervisory influence allows discretion as to the boundaries within which incumbents may act.(48,142)

What remains to be discovered empirically are the determinants of appropriate behaviour within these boundaries in terms of the effectiveness of the organization.

SUPERVISORY STYLES

Katz, Maccoby and Morse distinguish between close supervision and general supervision. The directive, close supervisor specifies exactly what each person is to do and when; gives detailed explanations of slightly different procedures; is production-centred.(31,17-29)

Blau and Scott offer a similar description of a supervisory style which they characterize as authoritarian.(6,148)

Halpin describes the style of supervision of

principals who score high on Production Emphasis. Such a principal is likely to schedule the work of his teachers, check their subject matter ability, correct their mistakes, talk a great deal and ensure that they work to full capacity.(27,31)

It has already been suggested that this style of leadership may not be appropriate in all circumstances. The earlier quotation from March and Simon suggests that, in our culture at least, workers need to have the feeling that they are participating in decisions about their work. Argyris proposes that the insistence on organizational control conflicts with the individual's need for independence.(3) March and Simon agree:

> If the maintenance of ego and status position is important to individuals, the more detailed the supervision the greater will be the number of alternatives evoked of a non-organizational character.(42,54)

Some empirical findings have borne out the dysfunctional effects of close supervision. Thus, Gouldner found that directive control led to worker resentment and less effective goal attainment.(24,178) Katz, Maccoby and Morse similarly found that supervisors of less efficient units were more directive than supervisors of more efficient units in an office situation.(31) On the other

hand, Blau and Scott found that authoritarian supervisors led groups that were as effective as those led by less authoritarian supervisors.(6,163)

March and Simon offer one tentative explanation for these conflicting findings. They suggest that the effect of the closeness of supervision may depend on the complexity of the task relative to the worker's ability.(42,55) In simple terms they seem to be suggesting that given a complex task and a relatively incompetent person to perform it, more directive supervision by someone who understands the task will achieve better results. This implied relationahip between the nature of the task, whether relatively complex or simple would seem to be predictable from the Weberian model of bureaucracy. Rosengren, in a recent study of Mental hospitals found just such a relationship:

> The absence of a body of reliable knowledge makes orderly specialization of tasks hard to devise; consequently, task assignment becomes unspecialized and employee control a structural problem . . .. In specialized hospitals the control of employees appeared to be achieved through structural means . . .(48,160)

Rosengren suggests that where there is difficulty in specifying the activities to be carried out, structural control of the participants' behaviour will be replaced or supplemented with supervisory control.(48,161)

II. BUREAUCRACY AND SCHOOL SYSTEMS

It has already been indicated that all organizations must make some structural provision for the control of their members and that within a given structure there remains the possibility of this control being reinforced by supplementary styles varying from directive to permissive. School systems no less than other organizations need a control structure of some sort; that is, an arrangement of the supervisors and supervised in some fashion to assure that the goals of the system are realized. At the same time, given the rather indeterminate, broadly defined nature of the task, it might be expected that, as in the case of Rosengren's hospitals (p.24, supra) less reliance would be placed on structural control than on supervisory control. Given further the professional training of teachers, that is, their competence in the task, it might be expected that a permissive style of supervision would be more effective than a directive style. The evidence on the first question generally tends to confirm the belief that school systems are bureaucracies. The evidence on the question of supervisory styles is not so clear.

THEORY

Charles Bidwell offers some possible reasons why school systems might be essentially bureaucratic in form. First, the school system is responsible for a uniform product of a certain quality. That is, it sets a minimum level of student accomplishment which means that the system must devise consistent methods of assessing the ability of its students at various stages of their school careers and consistent procedures for socializing them according to these assessments. This means that procedures must be selected universalistically on the grounds of variable student aptitude. Second, socializing children and adolescents for adult roles is a massive and complex undertaking. He suggests that as the length of schooling has increased, and its nature has become more complex, the coordination of educational activities so that they are coherent and sequential moves more and more to the center of school-system administration.(5,972-973)

Anderson concurs when he hypothesizes that:

> . . .bureaucratic controls will vary inversely with the amount of supervision given to subordinates. In those occupations such as teaching, where it is difficult to closely supervise lower subordinates, it would be expected that management would resort to the decentralizing function of rules and attempt

> to control behaviour from a distance. Thus rules would be expected to proliferate so that a spot-check system could be used in supervising employee behaviour.(1,15)

Anderson further develops propositions about the nature of schools and teaching that would lead one to expect a bureaucratic control structure in school systems. However, there is in the literature a good deal of *a priori* reasoning that would lead one to conclude that the bureaucratic control structure and its concomitant of close supervision, whether remotely by an elaborate system of rules or more immediately by directive supervisory practices, is inappropriate for school systems. These arguments generally rest on the consideration of the nature of teaching as a profession. Professionalism is generally assumed to imply that the employees have the required training to allow them to operate autonomously in the performance of the task, and are thus less in need of direction from line control.

Etzioni goes so far as to suggest that "in full-fledged professional organizations the staff-professional line administrator correlation is reversed."(11,81) However, he points out that for a variety of reasons, including the relatively short period of teacher training, that primary schools, at least, are better looked upon as semi-professional.(12,88)

Bidwell expresses the view that

> The intrinsic nature of teaching runs counter to the bureaucratic principle of school organization and that, paradoxically, to perform adequately in his office the teacher is forced to violate the rules of performance.(5,1005)

These views, on the one hand that school structures appear to have many of the characteristics of bureaucracies and on the other hand that they are staffed by professionals who need autonomy, can be found throughout the literature. Empirical evidence on these subjects is just beginning to make its appearance and to the present reports are conflicting on several points.

RESEARCH FINDINGS

In 1965 Bidwell reported that

> There is no existing study of the prevalence or incidence either of bureaucratic structures or processes in school systems or of their consequences for school-system operations. Nor has there been any adequate work on the interplay of bureaucratization and professionalism in schools.(5,992)

Nevertheless, there have been a few recent studies on the subject and some of the findings are interesting in what they imply for the examination of supervisory style and some of the variables that may be involved in its study.

Moeller found that teachers' sense of power was

positively related to bureaucratization. On the other hand, their sense of power was lower in those school systems characterized by an arbitrary repressive style of administration.(5,456) MacKay found that bureaucratic schools were less productive.(36) Robinson found that schools varied in their structure of bureaucracy as measured on a six-dimensional scale and that whereas principals desire less of those bureaucratic characteristics (rules, procedural specification, impersonality) which reduce the need for independent teacher performance, teachers themselves desired more.(47) However, Robinson's study cast some doubt upon whether the classical model of bureaucracy is suited to schools. The research on bureaucratization of schools and school systems is sparse. The research on teacher professionalism is a little more plentiful.

Washburne found that teachers thought of themselves as professionals who by right should have enjoyed autonomous discretion over teaching activities, and felt that they were hampered by administrators who severly restricted their autonomy and specified both the goals and the procedures of instruction.(50) Peabody found that teachers more than either policemen or welfare workers found the basis of authority in their own professional competence rather

than elsewhere in the organization.(46,129) Robinson also found a trend to indicate that schools with high staff professionalism scores de-emphasized hierarchical authority, rules, procedural specification and impersonality.(47)

Bidwell suggests that though school systems probably have a need for some sort of structural control system, there are reasons why this would be expected to be a "loose" system: "School systems must operate by coordinating, in the interests of sequence and uniformity, not simply spatially dispersed, but structurally discrete and relatively independent sub-units."(5,976) This is the situation that Robinson found in his study; schools differed significantly in their forms of bureaucracy along the six dimensions measured.(47) It has already been suggested that where structural provisions for control are limited, provision will probably be made by some form of more immediate supervision. The form appropriate for schools has not been extensively investigated.

Becker found that teachers did not accept the official authority of principals as legitimate in the areas of curriculum and instruction, but expected the principal to base his supervision of these aspects of the

task on professional competence, giving constructive criticism rather than orders.(4) Ziolkowsky found that teachers who worked under effective principals felt that they had a greater share in decision-making.(55) McNamara found that effective schools were led by more directive principals, but that this "directiveness" did not consist in the mere giving of orders; on the contrary, such principals not only directed staff attention toward instructional matters, but also involved their staffs more in discussion and decision-making about these matters.(40) However, this relationship between effectiveness and supervisory style was found not to be a simple one. The relationship was contingent upon the staff's acceptance of the principal as leader.(40,142) An understanding of this and other findings in the McNamara study requires some comprehension of the model used by him in that study and applied again in the present study.

III. THE CONTINGENCY MODEL OF LEADERSHIP EFFECTIVENESS

McNamara applied a model of leadership effectiveness to elementary schools in Alberta in two studies.(40)(41) This model had been developed by Fred E. Fiedler over a

period of years and led to the eventual development of his theory of leadership effectiveness.(5) It has been widely tested since in a great variety of organizations with mixed results.(18)(43) It has been widely heralded by professional reviewers of the literature as a potential Ariadne's thread by which we might lead ourselves out of the labyrinth of inconclusive trait and situational studies in leadership.(30)(23)(28)

Basically the theory proposes that leaders will be effective if they possess a certain trait or attitude appropriate in a given kind of situation. That is to say, some leaders tend to be directive, others permissive and in certain situations a directive leader will be more effective than a permissive leader. Directiveness and permissiveness are measured by an intrument that gauges a leader's esteem for his least-preferred co-worker. The situations for which one style will be particularly appropriate are defined in terms of the leader's perception of the group's acceptance of him, the structure of the task in which they are mutually engaged, and the leader's position power. Each of these factors is defined quite carefully and the instruments for their determination have been refined over a period of years, mostly in real-life

situations.

LEADERSHIP STYLE

The instrument used to determine the leader's style as directive or permissive, is called the Least Preferred Co-worker (LPC) instrument. The current form follows Osgood's Semantic Differential, with scale sheets containing twenty bipolar-adjective items. Each of these items is scored by a range of numbers from eight at the most favorable pole down to one at the least favorable pole. The score is obtained by simply summing the item scores. Fiedler reports that for various samples means range from 63.8 to 82.6; low LPC scores run from 24 to 44; high LPC scores range from 82 to 114.(15,46)

Stability of LPC

Fiedler reports studies of the stability of LPC over time. (5,50) The test-retest correlation with a sample of Air Force officers was .68, for example.

Gruenfeld reports a correlation of .85 with a sample of university students over a period of five weeks.(26)

McNamara re-tested 24 elementary school principals after nearly two years, at a different stage of the school year and using a different LPC scale and reports a correl-

ation of .45, which was significant at the .01 level.(41,179)

Meaning of LPC

While some research has been done on the meaning of LPC scores, Fiedler states that

> . . .these scores have been extremely resistant to meaningful interpretations which relate them to personality traits and to consistent behavior patterns. For many years we were in the peculiar position of having a score which seemed to correlate with nothing but group performance.(15,46)

To date, searches for the meaning of LPC scores have generated a few hypotheses. Fishbein , Landy and Hatch examined the possibility that High and Low LPC leaders may behave differently because they differently perceive the demands of the situation and act in accordance with their perceptions.(20) They concluded that leaders who differ in their esteem for their least preferred co-worker are not differentially effective in a given situation because they perceive the demands of that situation in different ways.(20,466) Other studies have demonstrated a consistent but moderate relationship between LPC and cognitive complexity.(18)(41) These studies indicate that high LPC persons are able to discriminate more finely among the behaviours used by others than were low LPC persons. Mitchell hypothesizes that this greater

cognitive complexity of the high LPC person in his perception of co-workers as well as groups, reflects his concern for interpersonal relations in order to achieve need satisfaction.(43,262)

Whether LPC reflects an attitude, cognitive complexity or differential frames of reference in interpersonal perception, high and low scores have been associated with different behaviours.(14,53-87)

LPC and Behaviour

Fiedler reports that the most important clue to the interpretation of LPC scores comes from studies which show that the behaviour associated with high and low LPC scores systematically changes as the situation becomes more difficult for the leader. For example, high LPC discussion leaders made more procedural remarks and non-task-relevant comments irrespective of the pleasantness of the situation in discussion groups. Low LPC leaders made more remarks having to do with the elaboration of ideas and showed higher rates of activity in strained groups. Summarizing these findings, Fiedler believes that the scores seem to be motivational measures. High LPC scores indicate relationship orientation and motivation to achieve personal recognition and prominence. Low LPC

scores appear to indicate task orientation.

There is evidence from other sources of the difference between High and Low LPC leaders. Gruenfeld, Rance and Weissenberg also found High LPC leaders to behave in a less Dominant, more Accepting and more Tension Releasing manner than Low LPC leaders.(26,104)

McNamara found that High LPC principals differed from Low LPC principals in supervisory practices. Low LPC principals made longer classroom visits, called teachers to the office more frequently and prescribed teaching methods more. High LPC principals did not employ such seemingly permissive practices as allowing teachers to initiate more matters at staff meetings or appointing more staff committees. They were, however, significantly more active during classroom visitations.(40,128)

Yukl, using a specially designed form of the LPC instrument in four different groups, found a significant correlation between LPC and Initiation of Structure and Consideration as measured by the LBDQ. LPC correlated positively with Consideration and negatively with Initiation of Structure. (54)

McKague found significant correlations between LPC and Production Emphasis, Thrust and Consideration, using

the OCDQ. These were interpreted to mean that low LPC principals tend to behave in a manner which emphasizes production and yet promotes member satisfaction. Such principals were controlling and managing in their relations with others and expected a high level of performance from them. At the same time, they displayed a great deal of concern for teachers as individuals worthy of concern. (38,109)

These findings seem to support Fiedler's own general conclusions about the differences between High LPC persons and Low LPC persons. Leaders scoring high are generally more concerned with establishing good interpersonal relations than are those scoring low. The members of their groups tend to be lower in anxiety, get along better with one another and are more satisfied to be in the group. (15,45) This indicates to Fiedler that High LPC leaders are concerned with having good interpersonal relations and with gaining prominence and self-esteem from these interpersonal relations. This leads them then to increase their interpersonal interaction in situations where the satisfaction of these needs is threatened, and their concern for the task will be commensurate with their obtaining successful interpersonal relations in its performance. (15,46)

Low LPC leaders' underlying need may be to succeed

in the task, but the behaviour he engages in to achieve success may differ from situation to situation. In one set of circumstances low LPC leaders may elaborate ideas and give directions, in another they may seek direction and orientation.(15,54)

GROUP AND TASK DIMENSIONS

The Contingency Theory conceives of the favourability of situations for the leader as being influenced principally by three factors. In order of importance these are: (1) Leader-member relations, (2) Degree of task structure, (3) Leader's position power.(15,143)

Leader-Member Relations

In the original studies conducted by Fiedler, this variable in the situation was measured by an index of sociometric choice. However, in later studies, an effective reflection of the relationship between the leader and other group members has been obtained by having the leader rate the group atmosphere (GA). The instrument used to measure group atmosphere is similar to the LPC instrument. The leader is asked to rate the group with which he is working on items such as friendly-unfriendly, cooperative-

uncooperative, tense-relaxed and the like. The score indicates the degree to which the leader feels accepted by the group and relaxed and at ease in his role.(15,32) Fiedler regards this as the most important dimension of the situation because

> The leader who is whole-heartedly accepted or who inspires complete and unquestioning loyalty in his followers needs no signs of rank and no organizationally granted powers to get his men to do his bidding.(15,29)

Empirical studies have tended to support the importance of this variable as measured by the GA instrument as a mediator of leader effectiveness. Williams and Hoy report a study of forty-two elementary schools in New Jersey in which they employed the GA instrument and found that

> Regardless of whether teacher loyalty to principals or group atmosphere was used the results were almost identical . . . task-oriented principals led significantly more effective schools in favorable situations. In less favorable situations, correlations between leadership style and effectiveness were in the opposite direction.(52,67)

McNamara concluded from his study of elementary schools that the interpretation of the GA measure as an index of group acceptance of the leader appears to be validated in that staffs in high GA schools, much more than staffs in low GA schools, appear to identify principal effectiveness, and their own satisfaction appears to be

much more related to principal effectiveness.(40,130) He also found GA to mediate the relationship between LPC and school effectiveness in the direction predicted by the model, assuming the leader position power of principals to be high.(40,143)

While McKague found no significant relationship between LPC and teacher behaviour as measured by the OCDQ overall, he did find that in high GA schools there was a significant relationship between LPC and Disengagement, Hindrance and Esprit.(38,100)

Although LPC and GA ratings are provided by the same individual, evidence from a number of sources initially indicated that they are not correlated. Fiedler reported a non-significant median correlation of -0.18 between leader LPC and GA scores.(14,313) McNamara reported a non-significant correlation of 0.28 between the two variables in his first study.(40,123) However, in his second study he presented some evidence that these findings may stem from the use of a test of linear relationship to measure what is in fact a curvilinear relationship and that the GA measure may be particularly useful for short-term groups, but less useful for long-term groups where attitudes to the leader may have had time to become apparent to him.

He suggests that a High LPC leader will rate his group differently from a Low LPC leader, depending on what each perceives his group's attitude to him to be.(41,192)

Degree of Task Structure

The theory holds that the nature of the task as structured or unstructured determines the leader's influence to a considerable extent. Fiedler summarizes it this way: ". . .the structured task is enforceable while the unstructured, ambiguous task is difficult or impossible to enforce."(15,28)

Task structure is determined by having the task scaled on four dimensions: (1) Decision verifiability, or the degree to which the correctness of the decision can be demonstrated, for example by appeal to authority; (2) Goal clarity, the degree to which the requirements of the task are clearly stated and known to the group members. (3) Goal path multiplicity, the degree to which the task can be solved by a variety of procedures. (4) Goal specificity, the degree to which there is more than one correct solution.(15,28) Using the Fiedler scale for the determination of this dimension, McNamara found that in the opinion of experts, the Task Structure of elementary

schools was low.(41,207)

Position Power

This is defined as ". . .the degree to which the position itself enables the leader to get his group members to comply with and accept his direction and leadership." (15,123) It is therefore related to French and Raven's concept of legitimate power and reward-and-punishment power.(21,156) This variable is measured by a checklist of some thirteen items in the form of questions, such as "Can the supervisor supervise and evaluate subordinates' jobs?" "Can the supervisor punish or reward subordinates on his own?" The score is the sum of "yes" answers to these questions. In many instances this dimension has been measured by people familiar with, but outside the group being studied. This practice was no doubt dictated by the fact that many of the groups studied by Fiedler had long since dispersed by the time the model as such was applied to them.

McNamara had only partial success with outside raters of the position power of principals. In his second study, his hypothesis that elementary school principals rated high on position power was rejected.(41,210) In

his first study, however, his findings of the relationship between LPC and directiveness led him to suggest the rejection of his original assumption that the leader position power of elementary principals was low.(40,151) In short, the evidence is inconclusive and appeared to justify another attempt to measure this dimension, an attempt that was made for this study.

CLASSIFICATION OF TASK GROUPS

When the group-task dimensions discussed above have been measured, situations may then be located according to their positions on these dimensions. (Figure 1)

The octants in the model are numbered in terms of decreasing favourability of the situations for leadership. Thus octants 1 - 3 represent the situations most favourable to the leader. In each of these situations, the leader enjoys good relations with his group. In the first, however, he enjoys as well high position power and the advantage of dealing with a task that is highly structured. In the second, while the task remains highly structured, the leader has less position power. In the third the group is involved in a less structured task, but the leader has high position power, which partly compensates for this

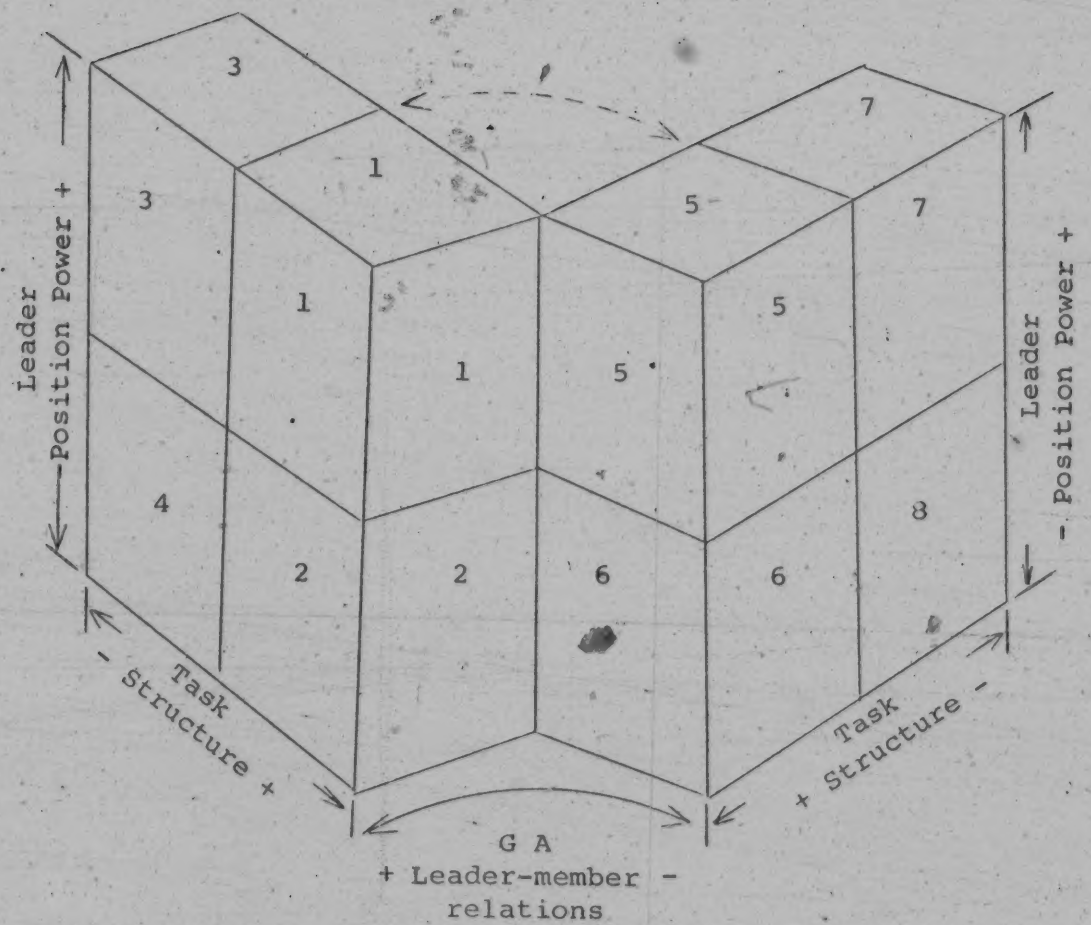

FIGURE 1

A MODEL FOR THE CLASSIFICATION OF GROUP TASK SITUATIONS

(Reproduced from the Harvard Business Review, Sept., 1965, p.117)

difficulty. Octants 4 - 8 represent situations that make it increasingly difficult for the leader to influence the group. This decrease in favorability of the situations for the leader is tabulated in Figure 2 with the style of leadership appropriate to each and the median correlations between style (LPC score) and effectiveness as reported by Fiedler.(18)

Octant	GA	TS	LPP	Leadership Style	Median rho
1	High	High	High	Task	-.52
2	High	High	Low	Task	-.58
3	High	Low	High	Task	-.33
4	High	Low	Low	People	+.47
5	Low	High	High	People	+.42
6	Low	High	Low	(none)	(none)
7	Low	Low	High	People	+.05
8	Low	Low	Low	Task	-.43

FIGURE 2
CLASSIFICATION OF GROUP TASK SITUATIONS ON THE BASIS OF THREE FACTORS

LPC-EFFECTIVENESS RELATIONSHIPS

The classification system illustrated in Figure 2 was developed by Fiedler on the basis of twelve studies which yielded 63 relationships between leadership style and group performance. These relationships were used to inductively derive the predictions of the contingency model by a procedure of allowing the median correlation for each octant to represent the predicted value.(15,196) Leader effectiveness is defined by Fiedler in terms of group performance on the primary assigned task. In some situations, effectiveness so defined is relatively easy to measure; number of direct hits by a bomber crew, number of basketball games won, total yearly sales and the like. With other tasks, reliance has to be placed on the estimation of competent judges, as in creative writing, for example, and as in the first McNamara study as well as the present study.

The relationship between leadership style and effectiveness as contingent upon the favourableness of the group task situation is illustrated in Figure 3, adapted from Fiedler.(15,146) Points on the inverted-U graph which fall above the midline (correlation of .00) indicate a positive correlation between leader LPC and group

performance. That is, groups under relationship-oriented leaders (high LPC) tended to perform better than groups under task-oriented leaders (low LPC). Points below the midline indicate that groups under task-oriented leaders performed better than groups under more considerate, relationship-oriented leaders. Each point represents the median correlations between LPC and effectiveness of many groups in each octant except Octant 6 in which none of the groups studied appeared to belong.

CO-ACTING GROUPS AND THE CONTINGENCY MODEL

Fiedler distinguishes between interacting, co-acting and counteracting groups. The second type, co-acting groups, have not been extensively studied, but is certainly an important type of group, as Fiedler points out:

> The bulk of leadership literature has dealt with interacting groups. These correspond most closely with the classical definition of the group as a set of individuals who interact in pursuit of a shared goal. Yet a substantial proportion of groups in our society - perhaps even a majority - are co-acting in nature. These are groups in which each individual performs his own job in relative independence from his coworkers. (15,220)

A typical example of a coacting team is found in bowling in which one team member at a time steps forward

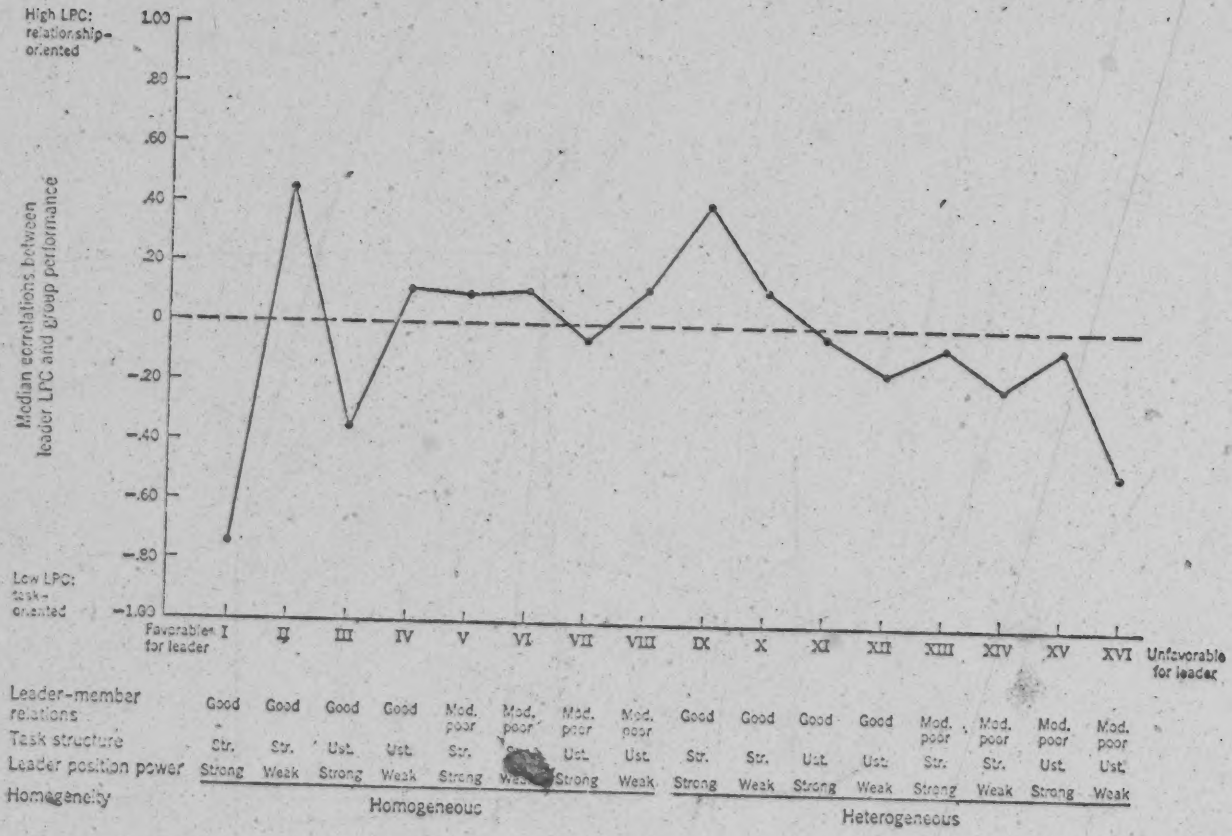

FIGURE 3

Correlations Between Leaders' LPC Scores and Group Effectiveness

to bowl his inning. He contributes to the group effect by adding his own score to that of his teammates. Fiedler points out that analogous situations exist in a business organization where each representative may be assigned to a different territory, and in many industrial concerns which operate on an individual piecework basis.(15,220) Another clear case is the traditional school with each teacher having charge of one grade, physically separated from the other teachers in the school and from the principal.

Fiedler at one point believed that because the leader of a co-acting group would be likely to interact separately with each member of the group, such groups could be considered as a set of two-man teams with consequences for the predicted relationship between LPC and effectiveness. (15,220) However, in a recent report of twelve studies of groups that were classified by judges as co-acting (including the McNamara study (40) and three other studies not conducted by Fiedler and his co-workers), he concluded that the distinction between interacting and co-acting groups was not necessary.(18,146)

IV. APPLICATION OF THE THEORY TO SCHOOLS

In order to predict relationships between leadership

style and effectiveness for any given group, the latter must be located in one of the eight octants in the model. Since the leader-member relations are determined in the course of the study by means of the GA instrument, only the task structure and leader position power are determined independently before the study. Thus, for example, it may be determined that a particular group is engaged in a highly structured task and the leader has high position power. In such a case, that particular group will fall into Octant 1 or Octant 5, depending upon whether GA is found to be high or low. If GA is found to be high, it would be predicted that a directive leader would be more effective than a permissive leader. If GA is found to be low, it would be predicted that a permissive leader would be more effective. (See Figure 2, p.45, supra).

The problem for the investigator then, is to determine whether the task is structured and whether the leader has high or low position power. In the case of schools, the power dimension is less easy to determine than that of task structure. In the present study, only task structure was assumed as given on the basis of McNamara's previous judgement by a panel of experts; it was assumed to be low. The leader position power of principals was decided upon

after gauging teachers' perception of this dimension. This meant that schools could fall into Octants 3,4,7 or 8, all of which represent groups with low task structure.

V. CULTURAL DIFFERENCES AND BEHAVIOUR

Fiedler remarks in a report of a study carried out in Belgium that "The performance of heterocultural groups is today of considerable importance. It is especially critical in the large number of countries which have culturally and linguistically diverse populations. These include . . . Canada . . ."(19,238) In this particular study, Fiedler was concerned with cultural heterogeneity as a source of stress stemming from the difficulties of inter-communication. Another possible source of stress, however, may be differences in behaviour and expectations within different cultural groups.

Maurice Farber points out with some emphasis that ". . . it is in relation to a particular culture pattern that one might expect to find a particular character structure."(13,81) Ralph Linton indicates how these behavioural peculiarities of national groups might be mediated:

> Between the national environment and the individual there is always interposed a human environment which is vastly more significant. This human environment consists of an organ-

> ized group of other individuals, that is a society, and a particular way of life, which is characteristic of this group, that is a culture. (33,11)

An example of the effect of this intervening human environment is to be found in Lambert and Klineberg's study of the formation of national stereotypes. Comparing samples of English and French school children from Montreal (as well as children from other nations), they indicate that French-Canadian children see themselves as similar to European French people, whereas English-Canadian children see themselves as similar to Americans and other Anglo-Saxon groups.(31)

A particularly important part of the human environment to which Linton refers is the family. Mailhiot, a leading French-Canadian social psychologist, argues that an individual's relationships with leaders, and authority relationships generally in adults, are influenced to a large degree by relationships with parents in childhood. (37,200)

Elkin reviews the literature on the family in Canada and concludes that the French-Canadian family has unique characteristics:

> In contrast to the family in English Canada the French-Canadian family has always been a distinct entity with a distinctive culture. The

> Canadian Family, by virtue of its language, contacts, commercial relationships and immigration never lost contact with the family of England and the United States. The French-Canadian family, however, developed independently and originally. Two factors were especially important. First, with the sudden halt in immigration from France, the French-Canadian families were left to themselves. Second, the French Canadians always saw themselves in sharp opposition to the North American Anglo-Saxon culture that surrounded them.(9,66)

Garigue offers evidence that what Elkin says of the French-Canadian family remains true in a modern urban setting. In a detailed study of the French-Canadian family he found that many of its structural characteristics such as kinship patterns remained intact in the cities, and he attributed this to the retention of a traditional value system.(9,369)

In view of what evidence there is, Mailhiot believes that we can expect the French Canadians to differ from English Canadians in important ways:

> The French Canadians constitute an ethnic group of whose social-psychological characteristics we unfortunately know little enough. Nevertheless taking into consideration certain sociological data, historical considerations, and relying on everyday observations, it is legitimate to think that we have here a distinct culture which determines to some extent the behaviour, the perceptions and the attitudes of groups or of individuals.(37,201)

Mailhiot goes on to report work being done with groups at the University of Montreal. It became apparent over time, he says, that certain persons were simply unable to operate in his experimental groups:

> It became apparent that the integration of an individual into a work group (and truly into any group oriented to the achievement of a task) is largely dependent on the quality and number of identifications which he has established earlier with authority figures.(37,199)

and further:

> Our research on the influence of antecedent groups revealed that the family milieu is truly the place where the proto-type of interpersonal relations and especially relations to authority are established.(37,200)

Bemoaning the lack of social-psychological knowledge of French Canadians, Mailhiot nevertheless expresses the belief that "we have a distinct culture which determines to a certain extent the behaviour, perceptions and attitudes of groups or of individuals.(37,201)

Tremblay, reviewing the literature on the French-Canadian family, describes its transition from a "traditional" family structure to a "modern" family structure in Quebec. In the traditional family there was a distinct, authoritarian head: the father.

> He had been himself subject to the orders and will of his father until his death and he acquired his status of authority after having

> fully demonstrated his capacities by his spirit of work and initiative . . . His orders were taken as sacred and were not to be discussed.(9,214)

He points out that contemporary studies of the family do not unequivocally support the hypothesis that the French-Canadian urban family has become more "democratic", reinforcing Garigue's view (p.52, supra).(49,217)

Yackley and Lambert, engaged in ongoing studies at MGill University in the social psychology of French and English Canadians, believe that the French-Canadian family can be considered father dominant.(53) They also have found French-Canadian fathers to be more active socializers of their children than English-Canadian fathers and point out:

> The ramifications of this contrast, if found to be reliable and valid, could be great, since the differences in mother-directed in contrast to father-directed child-rearing could express itself in various aspects of interpersonal behaviour both within and beyond the family.(34,231)

Empirical comparative studies of differences between French and English Canadians remain scarce. One such, however, lends some credence to our expectation that there might be differences between the two cultural groups. Henderson and his co-workers report that in a study of 100 English-Canadian and 100 French-Canadian adolescents,

there were significant differences in esteem, social interest, complexity, group identification and identification with father, mother and parents, in all instances lower scores being reported for the French-Canadian subjects.(29.147) They concluded:

> Overall, these differences suggest that the English-Canadian adolescent shows a more respectful attitude toward the other person . . . The French-Canadian boys in the present study, though, while less respectful, appear to be more authoritarian in their attitudes.(29,149)

And:

> An additional difference between the two groups is that the English scores for complexity are higher than those of the French. A higher score for complexity . . . seems, on the basis of earlier findings, to indicate greater intellectual competence as shown in positive relations to reading and to problem-solving.(29,149)

In the light of this evidence, it was proposed to examine the English and French samples of schools separately and to compare the two groups on the various measures used in the study.

SUMMARY

The literature reviewed indicates that the style of supervision appropriate to a given organization is probably a function of several factors that are measureable. Among these, group atmosphere, task structure and leader

position power have been isolated and studied by Fred E. Fiedler and others. These studies have suggested an arrangement of these factors into a model from which predictions about leader effectiveness can be made. This model has been found to be applicable to elementary schools, if the leader position power of principals is assumed or demonstrated to be high. It was therefore proposed to measure the position power of principals directly through the perception of teachers and to re-test the Contingency Theory on the basis of what the power finding indicated.

The literature further suggested that cultural differences between French and English schools might be expected and that the main instruments used in the Fiedler studies were particularly adaptable to the study of groups of different cultures. It was therefore proposed to examine the cultural samples separately for such possible differences.

It was finally proposed to define principal LPC scores in terms of typical supervisory practices of principals in the French and English systems.

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CHAPTER III

I. RESEARCH PROCEDURE

INSTRUMENTATION

The study was conducted using instruments that had been used principally in non-school situations as well as instruments used previously in educational research.

THE LPC MEASURE.

This is an interpersonal perception measure yielding leader personality scores which have consistently related to group effectiveness in studies conducted with a wide variety of groups excluding schools, by Fiedler and his associates(5) and specifically in schools by McNamara.(9)(10) The scale used in the present study may be found in Appendix A.

The instrument as it was used in this study is a refinement of what was originally a measure of "Assumed Similarity Between Opposites". The latter were arrived at by asking the leader to describe the most- and least-preferred co-worker he had known. However, it was subsequently found that the LPC scale alone was just as reliable as the original ASO score and the instrument itself much simpler to administer. (2,44) Fiedler also reports that a score based on twenty

items yields split-half reliability of .90.(4,44)

In most studies the score was obtained by asking the leader to think of all the people with whom he had ever worked, not merely those with whom he worked at the time of the rating. This was also the approach used in the present study. The scores are obtained by simply summing the ratings given the least-preferred co-worker on each of the scales in the instrument. In the present study, as in previous research using this scale, high LPC leaders were defined as those scoring above the median on the scale, low LPC leaders as those scoring below the median.

THE GROUP ATMOSPHERE MEASURE

This is taken to be an indication of the level of personal relations between the leader and group members. It was obtained by having the leader assess his group using scales similar to the LPC scales. The score is the sum of the ratings on each of the scales. A copy of the instrument used in the present study can be found in Appendix A.

Earlier studies by Fiedler and his associates attempted to measure the leader's acceptance by his group sociometrically. However, it was subsequently asserted by Fiedler that the present GA instrument proved just as effective as the sociometric method in measuring the degree to which the

leader feels accepted by the group and relaxed and at ease in his role, according to Fiedler.(4,32)

Fiedler has found that low GA scores are the exception rather than the rule in most groups, but that even so this is a particularly important dimension in moderating the effectiveness of the group.(4)(3) Because of the relatively small range in scores, the common practice is to use the upper and lower thirds in order to establish two groups, one high and one low on this dimension for predicting effectiveness according to the model. In the sample used in the present study, GA scores ranged from 40 to 78 on a possible 80, much like the narrow range found by Fiedler. High GA schools in the present study were, therefore, those in the top third and low GA schools those in the bottom third of the distribution.

SUPERVISORY PRACTICES

These are specific, quantified manifestations of the principal's supervisory behaviour. The questionnaire used in the present study is a reproduction of the one modified by McNamara and used successfully in his study of elementary schools.(9) It is an adaptation of the scale devised by Ziolkowsky.(12) The adaptations were largely in view of the differences to be expected in certain supervisory practices

in elementary and high schools.

Principal LPC scores were compared with the reported frequency of each practice. Scale scores from one to six on frequency of each practice as reported by staff members were summed for each principal and averaged to provide an approximate basis for rank orders to be compared with rank orders of principals on LPC scores.

Reported frequencies for each practice were also compared with effectiveness ratings of schools.

Finally, the scales were used to examine the differences between effective permissive principals and effective directive principals.

THE POWER INSTRUMENT

This instrument consisted of a series of eleven questions based on Hunt's questionnaire which was reported to have been found an effective substitute for the original 18-item Fiedler instrument.(4)(7) The instrument was not given a title that might indicate its nature, but the questions were included in the teachers' questionnaires as simply a supplementary series about the position of principal in the school system. The score was the sum total of the number of "yes" answers given. The original scale used by Hunt

contained thirteen items, but the answers to two of the questions were known for principals: they cannot promote or demote teachers on their own in the Montreal system, and they do have an official title, so these two questions were not included in the questionnaire. The word "principal" was substituted for the word "supervisor" used by Hunt. A copy of the instrument as used in this study can be found in Appendix B.

There is some confusion about the operational definition of LPP. Mitchell et al. suggest that the original cutting point was the median, and point out that this practice is open to the obvious criticism that the median is likely to be shifted from study to study so that a situation of high position power in one study could possibly be considered to be low position power in another.(11,257) However, Hunt, who first used the 13-item version of the scale adapted for his study of three organizations arrived at his score by dividing the total "yes" answers by the total number of questions to arrive at a percentage score. In his three studies, all the positions examined had high power, the scores ranging from 77% to 92%.(7) In the absence of a standard by which to compare the mean LPP ratings of principals by teachers, it was decided that a mean score of 7 or more

"yes" answers to the eleven questions would be interpreted as high position power. The cut-off, therefore, using Hunt's method is 64%; not as high as the lowest figure in his studies, but indicating in effect that teachers would perceive principals as being able to do well over half of the actions indicated by the items on the scale, all of which are presumably measures of power.

When the mean score on the LPP instrument for both French and English teachers was calculated, it was found to be 7.56 "yes" answers. While there was an appreciable difference between the French and English means, (Chapter VI) they were both over the average of 7 "yes" answers decided upon as denoting high position power for principals in the present study. The mean for power for principals in the French schools was 7.26 and that for English principals was 7.97. Using Hunt's system of converting to percent, the three averages were: 68.7%, 66.0% and 72.4% for the combined samples, the French sample, and the English sample respectively.

SCHOOL RATING

The schools were rated by District Directors of the school system. These are district supervisors, each respons-

ible for all the schools in a given geographical area of the city. They were asked to rate the schools on a six-point Likert-type scale. While it is clearly more difficult to rate the effectiveness of schools as compared, for example, to rating the accuracy of military or other teams, McNamara nevertheless found this instrument to discriminate among schools.(9) A copy of the scale used in the present study can be found in Appendix C.

TRANSLATION

Translation of the instruments from English into French was done with the assistance of two bilingual graduate students from Quebec whose mother-tongue was French. They both had an appreciable knowledge of the instruments and a sufficient knowledge of the French schools in Quebec to allow them to judge that the general meaning of the questionnaires would be the same in these schools as in the English schools. Professor Fiedler also sent copies of the French LPC and GA instruments used in the Belgian study and these were found to be comparable to the translations used in this study.

THE SAMPLE

The present study was carried out with a sample of fifty-one elementary schools of the English language and sixty-nine French elementary schools. These represented 89% and 68% respectively of all the elementary schools in the system. In each of these schools, the principal devotes full time to administrative duties. The average staff size was 16 excluding the principal, but usable returns were received from an average of 14 teachers per school for totals of 714 English teachers and 898 French teachers.

All of the schools are located in the City of Montreal and are administered by the Montreal Catholic School Commission.

DATA COLLECTION

After obtaining the agreement of administrators of the seven regional districts involved and the two teachers' unions, to proceed with the study, questionnaires were sent to all the elementary schools in the system, with instructions and stamped return envelopes. A follow-up letter was sent two weeks later to those who had not returned their materials.

Principals were asked to complete the principal's questionnaires, the LPC instrument, as well as the Group Atmosphere scale.

Schools in the sample were coded and school officials asked to rate them on effectiveness. The coding system was devised to assure participants of anonymity.

Teachers in the schools were asked to complete the questionnaires on principal power and supervisory practices as well as to supply some information about themselves. Their answer sheets were returned in a separate envelope from that of the principal, by a teacher designated by the staff.

DATA ANALYSIS

Principal Cards

Responses of principals to their questionnaires were recorded and computed by hand as were those of the effectiveness ratings by school officials, and transferred to computer cards, one card for each principal containing:

The school code number

Language of the school

Sex of the principal

Length of time he had been a principal

Length of time he had been principal of that school

Principal LPC score

Principal GA rating

Mean LPP rating of that school by teachers

Size of the school staff

School effectiveness rating

Teacher Cards

Responses of teachers were transferred from specially designed IBM scoring sheets to cards by machine, each card recording:

The school code number

The teacher code number

The GA rating of the school

Teacher rating of principal supervisory practices

Teacher rating of satisfaction

Teacher's years of training

Computer programs were employed to yield the following information about each school and its principal, which was then recorded on a third computer card:

Mean supervisory practice scores for each item

Mean teacher rating of satisfaction

Mean teacher rating of principal position power

Statistical Treatment of the Data

The Pearson product-moment correlation coefficient was calculated to measure the relationship between LPC and effectiveness.(1,97) While Spearman rho had been used often in previous studies, Glas and Stanley indicate that with the advent of the electronic computer, there is no

longer any reason to make this calculation on unranked data.(6,176)

Differences between groups, as between effective and ineffective principals, for example, were examined using the t-test for significance of difference between means of independent samples.(1,268) The basic assumptions for the use of this test, of normal distribution , approximate equality of variance within groups and approximately equal n's were met. The normal .05 level of significance was set for the acceptance or rejection of hypotheses, a one-tailed test being used for directional hypotheses and two-tailed test for non-directional hypotheses.

II. DEVELOPING HYPOTHESES

It was originally proposed to test the relationship between principal's leadership style and school effectiveness by applying to schools the model successfully used by Fred E. Fiedler, called the Contingency Model of Leadership Effectiveness.(1)(5) To test this model the groups being studied must be located in two of eight possible octants for which the model predicts the relationship between leadership style and effectiveness. The octants are defined by three factors: Group Atmosphere (GA), a measure of the

principal's perception of his acceptance by the group; Task Structure (TS), operationally defined in terms of Goal Clarity, Decision Verifiability, Solution Specificity and Goal Path Multiplicity; and Finally Leader Position Power (LPP), the extent to which the position of the leader itself embodies power over group members.

In terms of GA, groups can therefore be located in the following pairs of octants, the first in each pair being the high GA condition, the second being the low GA condition: 1 and 5, 2 and 6, 3 and 7, 4 and 8; the TS and LPP dimensions matching for each pair. For example, TS and LPP in octants 1 and 5 are high.

The number of possible matching pairs is reduced once the TS for the particular task of the groups being studied is established. McNamara has established that Task Structure for elementary schools is low in the estimation of a panel of experts in education, in comparison with other group tasks reported in earlier studies.(10) This low TS was assumed for the present study. Therefore, elementary schools cannot be located in the pairs of octants 1 and 5 or 2 and 6, where TS is by definition high.

Which of the remaining two sets of octants, 3 and 7 or 4 and 8 will be chosen for testing the theory depends on whether LPP is judged to be high or low respectively.

McNamara was unable to achieve a clear-cut estimate of whether the position power of principals was high or low.(10) He used the system of rating by outside experts. The present study examined the perception of teachers of the principal's power of position. The conclusion was reached that principals of elementary schools in the system studied had high LPP. (P.69, supra) Elementary schools were, therefore, located in octants 3 and 7 for purposes of prediction.

RETESTING THE CONTINGENCY MODEL

Fiedler's model predicts that when GA is high for this kind of group (Octant 3), effectiveness should relate negatively with LPC. The median correlation of studies in the development of the model was found to be -0.33 for this octant.(4,142) In Octant 7, where GA is low, effectiveness is predicted to correlate positively with LPC, the median reported correlation being +0.05.(4,142) The first hypothesis derives from these expected correlations.

It was intended at the beginning that the theory would be tested for English and French schools together. However, the differences discovered between the French and English samples were such as to indicate that the samples should be examined independently. Therefore, separate

hypotheses were generated for each of the cultural groups.

Hypothesis I

(a) Directive principals (low LPC) in English schools will be in charge of more effective schools and permissive principals (high LPC) will be in charge of less effective schools where the principals feel accepted by their staffs (high GA).

(b) Permissive principals (high LPC) in English schools will be in charge of more effective schools and directive principals in charge of less effective schools where principals do not feel accepted by their staffs (low GA).

Hypothesis II

(a) Directive principals (low LPC) in French schools will be in charge of more effective schools and permissive principals (high LPC) will be in charge of less effective schools where the principals feel accepted by their staffs (high GA).

(b) Permissive principals (high LPC) in French schools will be in charge of more effective schools and directive principals in charge of less effective schools where principals do not feel accepted by their staffs (low GA).

SUPERVISORY BEHAVIOUR OF ELEMENTARY PRINCIPALS

McNamara found that the Ziolkowski instrument, as adapted for the former's study (9) defined the behaviour of low LPC principals better than it did that of high LPC principals. It was proposed to replicate this test of the relationships between LPC scores and the items on the Supervisory Practices Questionnaire.[1]

McNamara found that in general, low LPC principals tended to be more task-oriented and to employ more directive supervisory practices than high LPC principals, such as paying longer classroom visits, calling teachers to the office more frequently, and prescribing teaching methods to a greater extent. Permissive supervision appeared to be the equivalent of a general lack of activity on the part of the principal.

Hypothesis III.

(a) Principals above the median LPC will tend to be those who manifest permissive supervisory behaviour, in English schools.

(b) Principals below the median LPC will tend to be those who manifest directive supervisory behaviour in English schools.

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[1]Supervisory behaviour, in hypotheses III through X was measured by the Supervisory Practices Questionnaire (page 147 infra), an adaptation of the Ziolkowski instrument.

Hypothesis IV

(a) Principals above the median LPC will tend to be those who manifest permissive supervisory behaviour, in French schools.

(b) Principals below the median LPC will tend to be those who manifest directive supervisory behaviour, in French schools.

McNamara also found that certain practices distinguish principals of more effective schools from principals of less effective schools, regardless of LPC scores, particularly that principals of effective schools placed greater emphasis on instructional matters and encouraged staff participation more. (9,114)

Hypothesis V

Principals in schools above the median in effectiveness will be differentiated from principals of schools below the median by greater emphasis on instructional matters, in English schools.

Hypothesis VI

Principals in French schools above the median in effectiveness will be differentiated from principals of schools below the median by greater emphasis on instructional matters.

Hypothesis VII

Principals in English schools above the median in effectiveness will be differentiated from principals of schools below the median by greater reliance on participatory leadership.

Hypothesis VIII

Principals in French schools above the median in effectiveness will be differentiated from principals of schools below the median by greater reliance on participatory leadership.

Finally, McNamara also found that among the more effective schools, principals scoring low on LPC were also more directive.

Hypothesis IX

Among principals of those English schools rated above the median in effectiveness, those principals scoring low on LPC will be distinguished by the employment of directive supervisory practices.

Hypothesis X

Among principals of those French schools rated above the median in effectiveness, those principals scoring low on LPC will be distinguished by the employment of directive supervisory practices.

THE TWO LINGUISTIC SAMPLES

The Montreal Catholic School Commission operates public schools for those citizens who profess the Roman Catholic faith, but for both languages, French and English. While the two groups, therefore, share one common aspect of culture, a common faith, they nevertheless differ in language, which is a perhaps more important aspect of culture. Moreover, the English schools operate in some isolation from the French schools, not only physically, but organizationally. They are under the direction of persons who themselves were educated almost exclusively in English schools and many of whom have come from other (English-speaking) parts of Canada and from other countries. The French-Canadian schools are operated by French-Canadians, which is to say persons who have been raised and educated in French in Quebec. There is no doubt that these two groups are culturally distinct.

There is to date no data specifically on the question of French and English Canadian attitudes to leadership. A major study of the subject prepared for the Royal Commission of Enquiry on Bilingualism and Biculturalism is unfortunately not yet available.* However, there are some grounds for the expectation that people of different cultural groups behave

*Auclair, Gilles A. and William H. Read. Attitudes of French and English Canadians Toward Industrial Leadership.

differently and share different attitudes.

At the time this study was proposed, there was no reason to expect differences between French and English samples in all of the variables included in the study. There did, however, appear to be gounds for supposing French-Canadian teachers might perceive the power of principals differently from English-Canadian teachers. Much of the literature reviewed in Chapter II accents the relationship of French-Canadians to authority figures, and suggests that these relationships are different from those of their English countrymen.

Because of this expected difference in the perception of principal power, it was expected as well that French-Canadian principals would supervise their staffs in a manner different from English-Canadian principals, but not specifically that they would use more or less directive supervisory practices.

Hypothesis XI

That French-Canadian and English-Canadian teachers will not differ in their perception of principal position power.

Hypothesis XII

That French-Canadian and English-Canadian principals will not differ in their employment of supervisory practices.

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CHAPTER IV

TESTING THE HYPOTHESES DERIVED FROM THE CONTINGENCY MODEL

The present chapter examines the results of testing hypotheses I and II; tests of Fiedler's Contingency Theory in schools. Hypotheses III through X, which deal with supervisory behaviour are examined in Chapter V. Hypotheses XI and XII; testing for cultural differences are examined in Chapter VI.

HYPOTHESIS I

This first hypothesis is derived from Fiedler's Contingency Model of Leadership Effectiveness. The model predicts that for schools located in octant 3 (high GA), directive principals would be more effective leaders and that for schools located in octant 7 (low GA), permissive principals would be more effective leaders. In Chapter III it was established that these were the appropriate octants for testing the schools in the samples.

THE ENGLISH SAMPLE

The findings on the test of hypotheses I (a) and I (b) are presented in Table I. The model predicts a negative correlation between LPC and effectiveness under high GA and a

positive correlation under low GA. The hypothesis is rejected. Not only is neither correlation significant at the .05 level, but the signs of the correlations are opposite to those predicted from the model.

TABLE I

APPLYING THE CONTINGENCY MODEL TO

ENGLISH ELEMENTARY SCHOOLS

LPC Correlated with System Rating of School Effectiveness

Group Atmosphere (GA) Level	Correlation	N
Schools undifferentiated on GA	-0.08	51
Schools under high GA	+0.08	16
Schools under low GA	-0.18	20

THE FRENCH SAMPLE

Table II presents the findings of the test of hypotheses II (a) and II (b) which predicted negative correlation between LPC and effectiveness in high GA schools and a positive correlation under low GA in the French-Canadian sample of schools. Once again the hypothesis is rejected. The correlations do not reach a .05 level of significance, although one of the signs is in the direction hypothesized, that for the relationship between LPC and effectiveness under

High GA.

TABLE II

APPLYING THE CONTINGENCY MODEL TO FRENCH ELEMENTARY SCHOOLS

LPC Correlated with System Rating of School Effectiveness		
Group Atmosphere (GA) Level	Correlation	N
Schools undifferentiated on GA	-0.08	68
Schools under high GA	-0.02	24
Schools under low GA	-0.13	20

This failure of the model to predict the relationship between effectiveness and LPC for elementary schools deserves some comment.

Predictions from the Model

Twelve studies reported by Fiedler yielded 63 relationships between leadership style and group effectiveness. These relationships were used to inductively derive the predictions of the Contingency Model. The median correlation for each octant represented the predicted value, as illustrated in Figure 3, page 48 above. Graen and his co-workers in a report of two laboratory studies testing the model, argue that these point predictions from the model are not inter-

pretable, since the variances of correlations within octants is often without an apparent central clustering of values. (1,196) Their study was an explicit examination of the hypothesis that the variance within octants was due to factors not specified in the model. Two independent groups with two experimenters at different times, worked on similar tasks with similar power arrangements. Predictions from seven of the eight octants of the model were able to be tested. In the first of the experiments, two of the seven signs of their correlation coefficients were opposite to those predicted by the model; one of them in octant 3. None of the correlations were significant. In the second experiment, only two of the seven correlations were in the direction hypothesized, one of them in octant 3. They concluded that their studies not only lend evidential disproof to the contingency model, but also indicate that it may not be summarizing meaningful and stable relationships.(1,200)

In another laboratory study designed to analyze the relationships among the variables in the Contingency Model, Fishbein, Landy and Hatch found that the four main variables, LPC, GA, Task Structure and Leader Position Power, and all their interactions accounted for between 7.6% and 17.8% of the variance in subjects' belief about the way the most effective leader should behave.(6,462)

These studies are worth mentioning, not because they constitute in themselves a disproof of the model, but because they underline some of the possible causes for its failure. The Fishbein, Landy and Hatch study suggests the possibility that a great many other factors, in sum outweighing the four model variables may affect the effectiveness of a group. The Graen study suggests the possibility that the model itself may not summarize meaningful and stable relationships. Fiedler, in answer to Graen et al., suggests that especially in laboratory studies, inadequate manipulation of the variables may also account for the failure to achieve significant results.(4,202)

Regarding the present study, it is difficult to say whether the manipulation of the variables was adequate. Given time and accessibility, for example, it might be preferable to have the investigator present before and during the completion of the instruments. It would also be useful to have a more objective measure of effectiveness of elementary schools than the one that was available. It is also felt intuitively that the Fishbein suggestion of the presence of many other factors affecting group outcomes might be particularly applicable in organizations as complex and multi-faceted as schools; factors such as socio-economic location are discussed later in this chapter. But with regard to the

remaining possibility, that the variables of the model may not summarize meaningful and stable operations, some evidence exists from the present study.

Assumptions about the Variables of the Contingency Model

Independence of the variables has been at least an implied assumption underlying the Contingency Model. Table III summarizes the significant correlations found among several of the variables of the model and other variables in the present study for the English and French samples. Only those correlations which were significant at the .05 level in either of the samples are reported.(p.91)

Group Atmosphere

Fiedler reported that GA, although it is determined by having the leader rate his group on a semantic differential instrument like the LPC instrument which determines his LPC score, is independent of LPC. The particular study he quotes was of a short-term, ad hoc group.(3,32) McNamara reported the two measures to be independent in his first study.(7,123) However, in his second study, he found an apparently curvilinear relationship among LPC, GA and Effectiveness in the combined samples and a linear relationship between LPC and GA in some sub-samples.(8,191) This led him to express the need for caution in its use as a measure of

TABLE III

INTERCORRELATIONS AMONG VARIABLES

	Correlations					
	English (n:51)			French (n:68)		
Variables**	GA	LPC	LPP	GA	LPC	LPP
YP	0.30*	0.32*	---	0.25*	0.09	---
GA	---	---	---	---	---	---
LPC	0.23*	---	---	0.14	---	---
EFF	---	-0.15	---	---	---	0.29*

* $p < .05$

** YP: Time the principal has been principal of that school.
EFF: System effectiveness rating of the school.
LPC, GA and LPP: As used in the Fiedler model.

the favourability of the situation. The significant correlation found in the English sample in the present study appears to confirm the limited usefulness of GA as a measure of the principal's acceptance by his staff.

To further complicate the interpretation of GA, it was found, in both the English and French samples, to be related to the number of years the principal had been principal of his school. It seems likely that as a principal gets to know his school and staff over a period of years, he finds

them more accepting of him as a leader. The beginning principal may find, as McNamara suggests, that the situation of starting in a new school may be rather stressful and the staff appear less accepting of him as a leader.(8,187)

Leadership Style

Since LPC was also related to time in the English sample, it would appear that this measure may not be as stable over time as has been suggested elsewhere. Other evidence that lends weight to this as a possibility is discussed in Chapter V. Not only does the English principal appear to modify his attitude to his group as he works with them longer, but his leadership style as measured by LPC is apparently modified as well. Why this relationship between LPC and time in the school is not found in the French sample remains unclear. The means of the tenure of the two groups as principal in the particular school were not significantly different.

Leader Position Power

The LPP of elementary school principals remains problematical. It was indicated earlier that McNamara, using judges' ratings, did not achieve unanimity on the question. Fiedler's four judges, in their examination of McNamara's

first study, assessed principal position power as high.(5,144) However, they also located schools in octants 1 and 8 of the model, implying, although not directly stating, that the task structure of schools is high. This may have been their decision because correlation of .75 has been found between task structure and LPP and Fiedler believes that it may be a very general relationship.(2,153)

Before locating schools in octants of the model in the present study, the position power of principals was measured by asking teachers to assess it. It was believed that if teachers perceived principals to be high in power, then we could confidently attribute high power to them for purposes of testing the model. That is, it could be assumed that principals could use their office to achieve the compliance of the group. However, the significant relationship found between LPP and effectiveness in the French sample might lead us to believe that teachers were rating their own principal rather than, as was hoped, rating principals in general. No differences in other variables or in supervisory practices were found however, between schools rated high on effectiveness by their supervisors in the system and high in power by their teachers.

TableIV (p.94) offers some idea of where teachers perceive principals' power to lie. Less than one third of

TABLE IV

LPP AS PERCEIVED BY TEACHERS

ITEM	% "Yes"		
	ENG	FR	ALL
1 Authority to recommend reward and punishment of teachers to superiors	73	69	71
2 Authority to reward or punish teachers on his own	17	31	25
3 Can recommend promotion or demotion of teachers	91	87	89
4 Special knowledge allows him to decide how teachers are to proceed	55	33	57
5 Authority to give teachers a general idea of what they are to do	96	95	96
6 Authority to specifically instruct teachers on what they are to do	57	61	59
7 Important part of his job is to motivate teachers	89	87	88
8 Important part of his job is to evaluate teachers	87	63	74
9 Has a great deal of knowledge about the jobs under him, but requires teachers to do them	66	53	59
10 Has authority to supervise and evaluate teachers	89	87	88
11 Knows both his own and teachers' jobs so that he could finish their work himself if necessary	79	67	72

the teachers in the samples perceived principals as being able to reward and punish teachers on their own (item 2). Less than half perceived him to have special knowledge which allowed him to decide how they were to proceed on the job (item 4). Not much more than half perceived him to have the authority to instruct them on what they are to do (item 6), or thought principals had a great deal of knowledge of the teacher's job (item 9). Principal power seems to reside, in the perception of teachers, in the ability to recommend promotion or demotion (item 3), to give teachers general instructions (item 5), and to evaluate teachers and to supervise their work (items 7 and 9).

However, if teachers have these perceptions of the principals' power, then principals do appear to have what Fiedler describes as "some fate control over his members" (5,139), but not nearly as much as, say, factory foremen or military leaders. Nor does this particular kind of power seem particularly appropriate for the position of principal. Saranson spent ten years studying schools with the Yale Psycho-Educational Clinic and offers some insights into the role of the principal and its power.(9) First of all, he concludes that teachers are "loners".(9,113) This has implications for the principal's role in that he must deal with

teachers on an individual basis, in a one-to-one situation. This is the type of group that Fiedler classifies as co-acting, and Fiedler concurs in the judgement that schools are co-acting rather than interacting groups.(5,145) However, the more important ramification of the teacher's aloneness, according to Saranson, is that principals are recruited from the teaching ranks themselves and have become socialized to the idea of the independence of the teacher. When principals found Sarason and his colleagues achieving success in changing teacher behaviour in a helping role, they displayed some anxiety which they expressed with the statement: "You are doing what I am supposed to be doing."(9,126) Sarason goes on to point out that the principal has many restrictions placed by the culture of the school on his ability to affect change and is therefore probably much less powerful than is generally believed, nor does he possess the training to do what the Yale clinic members were doing.(9,126) Besides training in interpersonal relations, the kinds of things that principals do to have influence require expertise, as well. This seems to be the kind of power that teachers in the present study least perceived principals to possess, judging from the relatively few positive responses to items 4,6 and 9 in Table IV. Moreover, to exercise this type of influence

on a one-to-one basis, there must be contact between the principal and the teacher.

Sarason found a great reluctance on the part of principals to meet teachers individually. He was shocked to find that principals visited classrooms only once or twice in a two-week period and then only for a period of from 2 to 10 minutes.(9,126) Results of the present study indicate that in Montreal schools, principals had visited teachers' classrooms on an average of a little over once between September and April, stayed for between 15 and 20 minutes and called teachers to their offices to discuss teaching matters on an average of between once and twice in the same period. None of this data gives us much real confidence that principal power is high or that the instrument to measure power is really discriminating enough for application to individuals, which may be the kind of study of principal power that needs to be done in order to relate leadership style to effectiveness.

LPC of the French Principals and Favourability of the Situation

The Fiedler theory predicts a relationship between the leadership style of the leader and effectiveness of the group contingent on the favourability of the situation such

that in very unfavourable situations, directive (low LPC) leaders will be more effective. There were interesting data from the French sample in the present study to suggest that this may be the case in that sample, using a modified definition of favourability.

As the data from the French schools were being tabulated, it became apparent that there was a relationship between the code number of the school and the LPC score of the principals. Schools were numbered in ascending order on the form and as these numbers became larger, the LPC score appeared to be smaller. A test of the relationship produced a coefficient of -0.40, which was significant at the .008 level.

An examination of the French school numbering indicated that these schools were numbered from east to west in the city. The most obvious development as one goes from west to east in Montreal is the increasing population density and the decreasing socio-economic level.

Four of the five major administrative French regions of the territory of the Montreal Catholic School Commission are each divided into two sub-regions. The fifth region is in a newly developed suburb in the north-eastern part of the city, from which relatively few returns were received. It was not included in the following analysis, since it was unlikely that the income data from the 1961 census which

were used to derive the socio-economic level of the districts would be relevant for this fifth district in 1968. Data were gathered on two very general indices of socio-economic level of each of the eight remaining sub-regions. These were annual family income and average monthly rent. A Spearman rho rank-order correlation of these two indices yielded, as would be expected, a coefficient of .90, significant beyond the .01 level. It was decided, then, to use the single index of family income to explore the possibility of a statistical relationship between socio-economic level and LPC score.

Table V presents the average family income and rank for each of the sub-regions and the mean LPC scores of the principals in that region, and their ranks. Region 1A is located in the extreme western end of the city. Region 4B is located in the center of the city. The Spearman rho coefficient of correlation between the ranks on income and ranks of LPC was 0.65, significant at the .05 level(2,305) There is a possibility that socio-economic level is a kind of measure of the favourability of the leadership situation. It is commonly believed, for example, that schools in lower socio-economic areas are "tougher" to handle than those in higher socio-economic areas. It may well be that administrators of the system, knowing this to be the case, or at least believing it to be so, tend to appoint directive leaders as

principals to such schools, or at least principals they believe will be directive.

TABLE V

LEVELS OF INCOME AND PRINCIPAL LPC SCORES IN EIGHT FRENCH DISTRICTS

District	Mean Income*	R	Mean LPC	R
1A	$6172	2	107	1.5
1B	6872	1	107	1.5
2A	3503	8	94	6
2B	4168	7	96	5
3A	4481	6	100	4
3B	4880	3	101	3
4A	4657	5	76	8
4B	4763	4	81	7

*Source: 1961 Census of Canada, Bulletin CT4, "Population and Housing Characteristics by Census Tracts, Montreal." Ottawa: D.B.S., 1963.

This finding led to a further examination of the differences among the sub-regions. The result of a Kruskal-Wallis analysis of variance among groups(2,331) is reported in Table VI. Not only did the eight sub-regions differ on

mean LPC, but on mean GA, mean LPP, and teacher satisfaction.

TABLE VI

ANALYSIS OF VARIANCE AMONG

EIGHT FRENCH DISTRICTS

Variable	H	DF
LPC	14.9**	7
GA	15.4*	7
LPP	14.2**	7
Satisfaction	16.2*	7

**p < .10
*p < .05

In general, principals perceived their staffs as less accepting of them in the lower socio-economic regions, were perceived as having lower position power, and had less satisfied staffs. These last can be construed as defining relatively unfavourable situations for leadership. As would be predicted from the Fiedler theory, they were indeed in charge of directive (low LPC) principals.

This relationship of LPC to the socio-economic level did not appear in the English sample. However, it will be seen in Chapter VI that the mean LPC of English principals

was significantly lower than that of French principals. If the surmise that administrators choose directive principals for difficult schools is plausible, then the question of the socio-economic level of the English schools arises. No data were readily available on this question, but it is generally known that the majority of the students in the English system are the children of immigrant groups who rank below French Canadians in socio-economic level. It may be then, that the heterocultural nature of the students (and to some extent the staffs) of these English schools, and their low socio-economic level combined make them as difficult to administer as the poorer French-Canadian schools. It could be for this reason that the principals appointed to these schools are generally more directive, as measured by LPC, than the French-Canadian principals.

SUMMARY

This chapter examined the outcome of testing the Contingency Model of Leadership Effectiveness in two samples of elementary schools. The major hypothesis that leadership style would be related negatively to school effectiveness where the principal felt accepted by his staff and would be related positively to school effectiveness where he did not, was rejected for both samples.

Possible reasons for the rejection of the hypotheses were discussed. The first of these is that certain of the variables, assumed to be independent, were found to be correlated, notably LPC and GA. The second reason was that these same variables appeared to fluctuate over time so that they may not be as stable as the theory suggests. Finally, the question of leader position power of the principal was raised. While teachers perceived principals to be powerful in terms of the instrument used to measure this variable, it is questionable whether the kind of power they have is such as to make their job of influencing teachers easier. This has implications for placing schools in appropriate octants of the model. If principal power was in fact low, then schools would be tested in octants 4 and 8, rather than in octants 3 and 7.

The failure of this test of the Contingency Model does not of itself constitute a rejection of the theory. However, with the findings of McNamara, it raises questions about the applicability of the theory to schools. It appears that the Fiedler definition of the favourability of a group for the principal as leader may be much more complex to define for schools than in terms of task structure, leader position power and group atmosphere. Evidence was presented that the socio-economic level of the school district may be another important factor in defining favourability.

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CHAPTER V

SUPERVISORY PRACTICES OF ELEMENTARY SCHOOL PRINCIPALS

This chapter presents the outcomes of testing eight hypotheses concerning the supervisory practices of English and French elementary school principals. In Chapter II (p.35) the general kinds of behaviour associated with high LPC and low LPC leaders were examined. The supervisory practices which teachers were asked to report on in their schools were those contained in the instrument adapted from Ziolkowski's instrument. (Appendix D) Items 1,2 and 3 are defined as permissive practices; the remainder as directive practices.

HYPOTHESES III AND IV

The first hypotheses regarding the behaviour of principals were derived from the theoretical expectation that high LPC principals were permissive and low LPC principals were directive. It was expected that principals scoring above the median on LPC in each of the samples would differ in the kinds of supervisory practices found in their schools from principals scoring below the median on LPC. Mean scores on each of the teacher-reported practices were computed for

each school. T-tests were applied to examine the differences between the mean scores of permissive and directive principals. Table VII (p.107) summarizes the findings of the test of these hypotheses in the English and French samples.

The hypotheses are rejected in both samples. Elementary principals scoring above the median on LPC in neither sample demonstrated greater use of the three permissive practices (items 1 - 3) than low LPC principals. Nor did low LPC principals demonstrate any greater use of the directive supervisory practices (items 4 - 11).

HYPOTHESES V AND VI

The second set of hypotheses concerning supervisory behaviour were that certain supervisory practices were likely to be used by effective principals, regardless of their permissiveness or directiveness. Specifically, that more effective principals would place greater emphasis on instructional matters (item 4), in both the French and English samples. Table VIII summarizes the findings for both samples. The hypotheses were rejected. No supervisory practices distinguished between permissive and directive principals.

TABLE VII

PERMISSIVE vs DIRECTIVE PRINCIPALS

ENGLISH AND FRENCH SAMPLES

Supervisory Practices	t English	t French
Permissive		
1. Staff initiation at meetings	0.62	0.31
2. Teaching-curriculum committees	0.46	0.06
3. Teacher share in decision-making	0.06	0.00
Directive		
4. Emphasizes instructional matters	0.20	0.08
5. Visits to classrooms	0.05	1.12
6. Length of classroom visits	0.47	1.06
7. Activity of principal in visits	0.09	1.64
8. Invites to office re teaching	0.38	0.34
9. Prescribes teaching methods	0.49	0.22
10. Interrupts lessons via P.A.	0.09	0.19
11. Applies pressure to work harder	0.08	0.85
	n's: 26,25	n's: 37,32

TABLE VIII

EFFECTIVE vs INEFFECTIVE PRINCIPALS

ENGLISH AND FRENCH SAMPLES

Supervisory Practices	t English	t French
Permissive		
1. Staff initiation at meetings	0.12	0.20
2. Teaching-curriculum committees	0.12	0.26
3. Teacher share in decision-making	2.08*	0.17
Directive		
4. Emphasizes instructional matters	1.53	0.16
5. Visits to classrooms	0.88	0.33
6. Length of classroom visits	0.14	0.11
7. Activity of principal in visits	0.96	0.05
8. Invites to office re teaching	2.08*	0.11
9. Prescribes teaching methods	1.29	0.17
10. Interrupts lesson via P.A.	1.70	0.45
11. Applies pressure to work harder	0.65	0.48
*p $<$ .05	n's: 32, 19	n's: 42, 27

HYPOTHESES VII AND VIII

It was further hypothesized that effective principals would put greater emphasis on participatory leadership than would ineffective principals (items 1,2 and 3). Table VIII summarizes the findings for both samples. There was only partial support for this hypothesis inasmuch as effective principals in English schools did allow more decision-making by teachers (item 3). They also invited teachers to the office more frequently to discuss teaching matters.

HYPOTHESES IX AND X

The final hypotheses on supervisory practices were that in the more effective schools, principals scoring below the median on LPC would use more directive supervisory practices (items 4 to 11). Table IX summarizes the test of these differences for both the English and French samples.

The hypotheses are rejected for both samples. In fact, the significant differences between the two groups were opposite to the general prediction. In the English sample, permissive principals of elementary schools interrupted lessons on the P.A. system more than did directive principals (item 10). In the French schools, it was the permissive principals who were perceived as applying more pressure (item 11).

TABLE IX

EFFECTIVE-DIRECTIVE vs EFFECTIVE-PERMISSIVE

PRINCIPALS

Supervisory Practices	t English	t French
Permissive		
1. Staff initiation at meetings	1.09	0.05
2. Teaching-curriculum committees	0.44	0.92
3. Teacher share in decision-making	0.88	0.99
Directive		
4. Emphasizes instructional matters	0.53	0.61
5. Visits to classrooms	0.44	0.48
6. Length of classroom visits	0.18	0.16
7. Activity of principal in visits	0.02	0.59
8. Invites to office re teaching	0.87	1.20
9. Prescribes teaching methods	1.04	1.44
10. Interrupts lessons via P.A.	1.97*	0.27
11. Applies pressure to work harder	0.39	2.24*
*p < .05	n's: 17,15	n's: 16,21

SUMMARY

Of the eleven supervisory practices expected to differentiate between principals, only four of them did so. One of these was a permissive practice: allowing teachers to share in the decision-making. Principals of effective English schools allowed their teachers a greater participation in decision-making than did principals of ineffective English schools. Of the remaining directive practices, three discriminated. In French schools, permissive principals more than directive principals invited teachers to their offices to discuss teaching matters. In the English schools principals of effective schools invited teachers to their offices more than did principals of ineffective schools. Principals of effective English schools who were below the median on LPC interrupted lessons more via the P.A. system. Finally, principals of effective French schools who were below the median on LPC applied more pressure on teachers to work harder than did principals of ineffective French schools who were directive.

Table X summarizes the relationships that emerged from testing the hypotheses about principal behaviour. There appears to be no clear pattern of relationships that would give any insight as to either the behaviour of high

or low LPC elementary principals in either the French or the English school system. Nor is there any clear set of behaviours that distinguish effective from ineffective schools except the two practices in the English sample. Finally, the directive practices that distinguish effective-directive from effective-permissive principals differ for each sample.

TABLE X

SUPERVISORY PRACTICES RELATED TO

PRINCIPAL STYLE AND EFFECTIVENESS

Principal	Practices
Permissive	Invites to office re teaching (French)
Effective	Share in decision-making (English) Invites to office re teaching (English)
Effective-directive	Interrupts via the P.A. (English) Applies pressure to work harder (French)

It seems unlikely that there are not in fact some behaviours of principals in interaction with their staffs which differentiate between permissive and directive principals. It can only be concluded from the present study that the instrument used in the present study failed to include these. Alternatively, it is possible that some of the other relation-

ships with LPC, discussed in Chapter IV, are constraints on the behaviour of principals such that the behaviours expected of directive (low LPC) principals, for example, are not valued by staffs of schools that are, by virtue of other factors, unfavourable for leadership.

CHAPTER VI

DIFFERENCES BETWEEN ENGLISH AND FRENCH SCHOOLS AND SEX DIFFERENCES

This chapter examines the differences found between the English and French elementary schools in testing Hypotheses XI and XII. Hypothesis XI predicted no difference between French and English principal power as perceived by teachers in each of the samples. Hypothesis XII predicted no differences between French and English principals in their employment of supervisory practices. Table XI (p.115) summarizes the results of the tests of these hypotheses.

HYPOTHESIS XI

This hypothesis is rejected. A signficant difference was found between the mean teacher rating of principalpower between the two samples. English teachers perceived principals to have more power than did French teachers. However, it cannot be concluded firmly that the difference was due to cultural factors alone. French teachers differed from English teachers significantly in their level of education as well. The average years of schooling reported for French teachers was just short of fifteen. That for English teachers

TABLE XI

DIFFERENCES BETWEEN ENGLISH AND FRENCH SAMPLES

Model Variables	t	Direction
LPC	2.76*	French > English
LPP	4.99*	English > French
Supervisory Practices		
Invites to office re teaching	2.05*	French > English
Prescribes teaching methods	3.80*	English > French
Interrupts lessons via P.A.	2.92*	French > English

*p < .05 English N: 51, French N: 69

was a year less. Since fifteen years of schooling in Quebec is the normal requirement for the first university degree, it would seem that appreciably more French teachers were degree holders than were English teachers. In an earlier chapter it was indicated that teachers' sense of power and of principal power was likely to be related to their degree of professionalism (Supra, p.28). French teachers, therefore, with their longer training could expect their own power to be greater, and by implication the power of principals to be less.

Lending further support to this argument is another significant difference in one of the supervisory practices of French and English principals. English principals prescribe teaching methods more than do French principals. In Chapter II, Becker's finding that teachers did not accept the official authority of principals as legitimate in the areas of curriculum and instruction was reported. (Supra, p.30) Therefore, it may not be the socialization process of French teachers that leads them to perceive the principal's power as lower, but rather that they do in fact have more autonomy in teaching methods and perceive principals to have less power in these areas. It was also in items 3 and 9 of Table IV (p.94) that French teachers differed markedly from English teachers. These items have to do with authority of expertise.

HYPOTHESIS XII

This hypothesis is also rejected. While there was nothing in the literature on cultural differences on which a directional hypothesis could be based, nor any reason to either include or exclude particular supervisory practices, it was expected that operational behaviours of French principals might be different from that of English principals, largely because of the different perceptions of power that

were expected to be found and which were found. The findings indicate that French principals call their teachers to the office more to discuss teaching matters and interrupt lessons more via the P.A. system than do their English colleagues. (Supra, Table XI, p.115) There does not appear to be any particular cultural explanation of these differences. The connection between prescribing methods and professional training of teachers has already been discussed. The other two supervisory practices appear to cancel each other out. French principals communicate more with their teachers both in person and via the P.A., showing no particular preference for either mode of interaction. While French principals prescribe methods less than do English principals, they do communicate more with their teachers about teaching, on a one-to-one basis, which is in keeping with the behaviour expected of permissive (high LPC) leaders.

PRINCIPAL LPC

An unanticipated finding was the significant difference found between the Mean LPC scores of French and English principals. It was this finding in particular which suggested that the two samples were independent and should be treated separately. The median LPC for French principals was 96, comparable to the medians reported by McNamara in 1967 and

1968, which were 93.5 and 102.8 respectively. McNamara did not report means. But the English median in the Egnlish sample of the present study was only 80. There are at least two possible explanations for this difference between the French and English samples, and some information presented in Chapter IV of the present study tends to support the second of these.

The first possible explanation is that the leadership style of principals undergoes a change when they assume the position and that in more difficult schools, i.e. unfavourable sitations, the leader LPC scores go down; the leader becomes more directive and more task oriented. However, Table III in Chapter IV of the present study illustrates that the LPC of English principals rises as they stay longer in a given school, implying an even lower LPC at the time of their posting.(Supra, p.91)

The second possible explanation is that the LPC instrument does measure permissive-directiveness, that this is a stable personality characteristic, and that the administrators in the English system choose directive principals to administer their schools, even though the group of potential principals as a whole may have a higher median LPC score. The French administrators do not particularly choose directive

persons over permissive persons, but rather a mixture of the two, depending on the particular school in which they are to fill the post and what they judge its requirements to be.

SEX DIFFERENCES

The literature on leadership had nothing to offer on what might be expected in the way of a difference between male and female leaders in similar organizations. Yet elementary schools may be unique in that a substantial proportion of the principals are female, while a small minority of the teaching staff is male. In the samples studied here, 33.3% of the English principals were female and 43.3% of the French principals were female. While teachers were not asked to report their sex, it is known that less than one third of the elementary teachers in the system, French and English, are males.

An examination of the differences between male and female principals revealed that while they did not differ significantly on any of the major variables used in the contingency model, for example on LPC scores, they did differ in their employment of supervisory practices. Table XII summarizes these differences for the English sample.

Only one practice distinguished French male from female principals: French female principals made longer classroom visits than males. But among the English principals, females emphasized instructional matters more than did males, invited teachers to the office more often, and prescribed teaching methods more. In general, they appear more active and more directive about teaching than do their male counterparts. Their staffs, however, report higher satisfaction. ($t = 2.65$, p .05)

TABLE XII

DIFFERERENCES BETWEEN ENGLISH

MALE AND FEMALE PRINCIPALS

Supervisory Practices	t	Direction
Emphasizes instructional matters	2.75*	Females > Males
Invites to office re teaching	2.93*	Females > Males
Prescribes teaching methods more	2.10*	Females > Males

*p < .05 n's: 16,35

SUMMARY

The results of testing the hypotheses that there would not be differences in principal power and principal supervisory practices between the English and French samples were

examined in this chapter. While such differences were found, it is not certain from the results that they were due to cultural factors as such. There were other differences than those hypothesized. French teachers were found to have had longer training than English teachers and this difference alone appears to be a possible intervening factor accounting for the differential perception of principal power.

The two samples differed as well on the LPC measure, the differences between the two means on this measure being significant. Two possible explanations for this were explored, and it was tentatively suggested that the Engish system may select more directive individuals as principals for their elementary schools. The answer to this question would require the testing of the two linguistic groups in Quebec in order to estimate the distribution of LPC scores in the general population from which principals are drawn.

Finally, it was found that there were differences in the behaviour of male and female principals, especially in the English sample, such that female principals were more directive than their male counterparts and more involved in teaching and instructional matters and that their staffs expressed greater satisfaction. This finding was of interest because it may be that the staffs are more satisfied

simply because they are working with a female principal, indictating that sex-congruence between leader and follower may also be an ingredient of the favourability of the situation. Or they may be more satisfied because the principal is so active in helping them to improve instruction, that is in doing what they believe principals should do. In any case, the question of the sex of the principal appears from this finding to be one worth pursuing as a variable in the leadership situation.

CHAPTER VII

SUMMARY, CONCLUSIONS, IMPLICATIONS

This chapter presents an overall summary of the findings of the study, some conclusions and implications for practice and for research derived from these conclusions.

SUMMARY

The present study was a test of Fiedler's Contingency Model of Leadership Effectiveness in English and French elementary schools in Montreal. This model predicts that in groups where task structure is low, leader position high, and group atmosphere high, directive leaders will be more effective than permissive leaders and that permissive leaders will be more effective where group atmophere is low in such groups. The study also examined differences in leader position power of the principal in the two groups, as perceived by teachers, and differences in principal behaviour between the two cultural groups.

The position power of principals was gauged by assessing the perception of the teachers of this dimension. Teachers in both samples assessed the position power of principals as high in terms of an arbitrarily chosen standard.

Hypotheses I and II

It was expected that there would be a significant negative correlation between school effectiveness and principal LPC where the principal felt accepted by his staff, and a positive correlation where he did not feel so accepted, in each of the samples. The hypotheses were rejected in both samples. Not only were the correlations not significant, but three of the four signs were opposite to those predicted by the model. This latter remark is included because Fiedler has habitually included non-significant findings in his derivation of the median correlation for the various octants, arguing that the consistent occurrence of similar signs is beyond chance. It was further found in the present study that the presumed independence of two of the main variables used in the model, GA and LPC did not hold for the English sample, and that GA correlated as well with the principals' years in office in both samples. The latter correlation suggesting that these variables may be modified over time.

Hypotheses III and IV

These hypotheses were derived from the observation that leadership style manifested itself in different ways.

Specifically, directive leaders were expected to behave in a more task-oriented fashion than permissive principals. The hypotheses were rejected for both samples. Neither permissive nor direct supervisory behaviour differentiated high LPC principals from low LPC principals.

Hypotheses V and VI

It was expected that effective principals would supervise their teachers differently from ineffective principals. In particular, effective principals were expected to place greater emphasis on instructional matters, and on participatory leadership. The hypotheses were rejected for both samples.

Hypotheses VII and VIII

It was expected that effective principals would be those who put greater emphasis on participatory leadership than ineffective principals. There was only partial support for this hypothesis in one of the samples - the English. Principals in English schools did allow more decision-making by teachers.

Hypotheses IX and X

It was expected that effective-directive principals would use more directive supervisory practices than effective

permissive principals in both samples. The hypotheses were rejected. It was found that effective-permissive principals in the English sample interrupted classes more on the P.A. system than did the French principals, and that effective-permissive French principals placed more pressure on their staffs to work harder.

Hypothesis XI

The prediction that French and English teachers would not differentially perceive the position power of principals was rejected. While both samples of teachers found principal power to be high, the English teachers perceived it to be significantly higher than did the French teachers.

Hypothesis XII

It was predicted that French and English principals would not differentially supervise their staffs. The hypothesis was rejected. French principals invited their teachers to the office to discuss teaching matters more than did English principals, and interrupted lessons on the P.A. system more often. The English principals, on the other hand, prescribed teaching methods more than did the French principals. The two groups were not differeniated by their use of any

of the permissive supervisory practices.

Other Findings

As well as the differences between the two cultural groups mentioned above, it was found that there was a significant difference between the mean LPC of English and French principals, the latter scoring significantly higher.

Examination of the data revealed several other relationships of interest. The most important of these was the peculiar association found between the four variables, LPC, Ga, LPP and teacher satisfaction on the one hand and the location of the school on the other hand in the French sample. Schools located in lower socio-economic areas of Montreal were found generally to be in charge of principals with lower LPC scores. They also had lower GA scores, lower teacher rating of LPP and lower teacher satisfaction.

While it would seem that the low level of GA, LPP and teacher satisfaction described relatively unfavourable situations for leadership, all efforts to find relationships between LPC and effectiveness as measured by the system rating, such as those predicted by the theory failed.

It also became apparent in examining the data that there were sex differences in one of the samples and these

were examined, since over one third of the principals in each sample were female. While French male and female principals did not differ on either the main variables or supervisory practices, English male and female principals did. English women principals differed from their male colleagues in the use of three supervisory practices: they emphasized instructional matters more, invited teachers to the office more to discuss teaching matters, and prescribed teaching methods more.

CONCLUSIONS

No support was found for the principal hypotheses derived from the Contingency Model of Leadership Effectiveness. Nor was much support found for the relationships hypothesized between LPC and supervisory behaviour. However, evidence was found concerning the differences between the two cultural groups, between the male and female principals, and an association was found between LPC and other variables in the French sample. Several conclusions can be drawn from these findings.

The first conclusion is that while the Fiedler model failed to predict in the present study, this may have been because of the inadequacy of some of the measures used.

In general terms, the theory represented by the model predicts that effective leadership style will vary with the favourability of the situation; directive leaders will be more effective in very favourable and in very unfavourable situations; permissive leaders will be more effective in situations intermediate in favourability. The variables used in the model to define favourability may not be entirely appropriate for use in schools and other methods for defining favourability need to be found. The fact that schools are, in general, larger work groups than the groups studied by many other investigators using themodel and the likelihood that they are in fact co-acting groups, probably have implications for the application of the model to schools. In addition, several findings of the present study point to the need for a different kind of definition of situational favourability. The position power of principals as perceived by teachers, for example, appears to be conditioned by the training of teachers, or to cultural factors. The measure of leaders' acceptance by the groups (GA) was found in one of the two samples to be related statistically to LPC; a more independent measure of this variable must be sought if further attempts to apply the model to schools are to be made. Finally, the failure of the model could conceivably have been due as well to the relatively subjective system of assessing

effectiveness that was used in the present study.

The second conclusion to be drawn from the study is that the instrument used to measure the leader behaviour of principals in terms of certain supervisory practices does not seem to incluude behaviours that do in fact differentiate directive from permissive or effective from ineffective principals in the samples studied.

The third conclusion is that French and English principals and teachers do appear to differ in important respects. The differences found in the present study could not be attributed unequivocally to culture. The English system seems to choose more directive principals, who prescribe teaching teaching methods more, and the French system appears to recruit better qualified teachers who perceive principals to be less powerful; but whether these differences are due to socialization within different cultures or whether they are due to fortuitous historical circumstances cannot be deduced from the present study.

The fourth conclusion is perhaps the most tenuous, but also the most promising for further investigation. It appears that in general, the English system selects more directive (high LPC) persons as principals than does the French system. More interestingly, it appears that the French system appoints

directive principals in certain schools, schools which may be described as unfavourable situations, and permissive principals in more favourable schools, much as the model might predict if each type of school were to be effective. It will be recalled that in the schools in lower socio-economic areas of the city, principals felt less accepted, teachers felt less satisfied and perceived principals as having less influence. Such a situation appears to be one relatively unfavourable for leadership. The model predicts that directive leaders will be more successful in such situations. In these schools in the French sample, directive leaders were the norm.

The final conclusion is that male and female principals appear to differ, especially in the English schools, in their supervisory behaviours. These differences may be greater than appear, if the instrument to measure supervisory behaviour is indeed as weak as was implied above, and deserve further investigation.

IMPLICATIONS

For Practice

Implications of the findings of the study for the two school systems stem principally from two of the findings.

The first derives from the finding that principals in the systems differ in their degree of directiveness-permissiveness and in their supervisory behaviour. It was indicated in the first chapter that these two systems will, in the near future, be required to meld their administrative cadres. Some attention will have to be paid to these differences in leadership style when that happens. Perhaps this can be done through joint determination of the expectations for the behaviours of administrators and an attempt to relate these to the style of persons intended for these positions.

The second implication stems from the finding that what power principals in both of these systems have, appears to rest on rather weak formal bases, such as their power to recommend promotion or demotion, which in the nature of things cannot be very important to the large number of young female staff who do not, in all likelihood, aspire to promotion in the system. The results from the instrument used, not a particularly powerful one, seem to indicate that principals in neither system are perceived to have the power of expertise that will no doubt be increasingly needed as staffs become better trained and more professionalized. If the organization wishes to facilitate the leadership of its principals, perhaps it would be better advised to seek

persons with a certain degree of expertise, trained in the basic interpersonal skills necessary for the therapeutic kind of interaction probably appropriate to co-acting groups, than to appoint directive or permissive principals as it appears to be doing at present.

For Research

The implications for research in educational administration are many. It has already been pointed out that more refined instruments for the measure of leader acceptance and effectiveness are a pressing need if the Fiedler model is to be adequately tested in schools. However, other questions needing further research if the model is to be useful for the study of schools should be investigated as well. A much more sophisticated measure of principal power would be worth developing, aside from its usefulness in locating schools in appropriate octants of Fiedler's model. What other factors besides training, for example, might be associated with teachers' perceptions of principal power? A better instrument would be based on a careful selection of items to elicit teacher perception of other bases of power than reward and punishment and expertise.

Further research is needed on the supervisory behav-

iour of principals. Principals appear from the results of the present study to have surprisingly little professional contact with their staffs, seldom visiting classrooms, seldom calling teachers to the office to discuss teaching matters, establishing few curriculum committees. A good question for examination is just what kind of contacts principals do have with their staffs, if not these, and to what purpose.

Finally, two more general questions arising from the present study deserve further research. The first is the question of cultural differences. The present study produced some evidence that such differences may exist, but without much exactitude or certainty. It may be that whatever differences there are between modal personality types in the French and English cultures in Montreal are obscured or even modified by the powerful effects of socialization within an organization, the educational systems, which are more similar to each other than they are different. But this cannot be concluded from the present study. The other question arises from the inadvertent discovery that male and female principals supervise differently in the English system. Again, it is possible that with a better instrument, other differences may be found. The source and consequences of these differences would merit further investigation.

APPENDIX

APPENDIX A

PRINCIPAL'S QUESTIONNAIRE - SECTION A

STAFF CLIMATE RATINGS

Use each of the following scales to rate your staff as a group. Put a circule around the number indicating your rating of the relative position of your staff on each scale.

As an example, the relative levels of warmth may be expressed in words, as follows:

----8----	--7--	--6--	--5--	--4--	--3--	--2--	----1----
Extremely warm	Very warm	Quite warm	More warm than cold	More cold than warm	Quite cold	Very cold	Extremely cold

Now rate your staff on the ten scales below. Do not do more than circle the appropriate number on each scale.E.g.:

Warm --8-:-7-:(6):-5-:-4-:-3-:-2-:-1-- Cold

Helpful	--8-:-7-:-6-:-5-:-4-:-3-:-2-:-1--	Unhelpful
Enthusiastic	--8-:-7-:-6-:-5-:-4-:-3-:-2-:-1--	Unenthusiastic
Hostile	--1-:-2-:-3-:-4-:-5-:-6-:-7-:-8--	Supportive
Cooperative	--8-:-7-:-6-:-5-:-4-:-3-:-2-:-1--	Un-cooperative
Distant	--1-:-2-:-3-:-4-:-5-:-6-:-7-:-8--	Close
Cold	--1-:-2-:-3-:-4-:-5-:-6-:-7-:-8--	Warm
Quarrelsome	--1-:-2-:-3-:-4-:-5-:-6-:-7-:-8--	Harmonious
Self-assured	--8-:-7-:-6-:-5-:-4-:-3-:-2-:-1--	Hesitant
Interesting	--8-:-7-:-6-:-5-:-4-:-3-:-2-:-1--	Boring
Gloomy	--1-:-2-:-3-:-4-:-5-:-6-:-7-:-8--	Cheerful

PRINCIPAL'S QUESTIONNAIRE - SECTION B

LEAST PREFERRED CO-WORKER RATINGS

Think of the person with whom you can work least well. It need not be a person with whom you now work. It may be anyone with whom you have worked in the past. Rate him/her on the following scales by circling the scale values in exactly the same way as you rated staff climate.

Quits easily	--1-:-2-:-3-:-4-:-5-:-6-:-7-:-8--	Keeps trying
Energetic	--8-:-7-:-6-:-5-:-4-:-3-:-2-:-1--	Tired
Casual	--1-:-2-:-3-:-4-:-5-:-6-:-7-:-8--	Dedicated
Practical	--8-:-7-:-6-:-5-:-4-:-3-:-2-:-1--	Impractical
Intelligent	--8- :-7-:-6-:-5-:-4-:-3-:-2-:-1-	Unintelligent
Calm	--8-:-7-:-6-:-5-:-4-:-3-:-2-:-1--	Upset
Confident	--8-:-7-:-6-:-5-:-4-:-3-:-2-:-1--	Unsure
Stable	--8-:-7-:-6-:-5-:-4-:-3-:-2-:-1--	Unstable
Softhearted	--8-:-7-:-6-:-5-:-4-:-3-:-2-:-1--	Hardhearted
Meek	--1-:-2-:-3-:-4-:-5-:-6-:-7-:-8--	Forceful
Responsible	--8-:-7-:-6-:-5-:-4-:-3-:-2-:-1--	Undependable
Immature	--1-:-2-:-3-:-4-:-5-:-6-:-7-:-8--	Mature
Bold	--8-:-7-:-6-:-5-:-4-:-3-:-2-:-1--	Timid
Ungrateful	--1-:-2-:-3-:-4-:-5-:-6-:-7-:-8--	Grateful
Impatient	--1-:-2-:-3-:-4-:-5-:-6-:-7-:-8--	Patient
Thoughtless	--1-:-2-:-3-:-4-:-5-:-6-:-7-:-8--	Thoughtful
Frank	--8-:-7-:-6-:-5-:-4-:-3-:-2-:-1--	Secretive
Careless	--1-:-2-:-3-:-4-:-5-:-6-:-7-:-8--	Careful
Controlled	--1-:-2-:-3-:-4-:-5-:-6-:-7-:-8--	Quick-tempered
Boastful	--1-:-2-:-3-:-4-:-5-:-6-:-7-:-8--	Modest

Explications sur la manière de remplir les questionnaires A et B

Les gens diffèrent dans leur façon de considérer les personnes avec qui ils travaillent. Ces différentes vues peuvent avoir de l'importance quand on travaille avec d'autres. Donneriez-vous votre réaction la plus naturelle, la plus spontanée aux différentes questions posées dans les pages suivantes.

Vous aurez par exemple des paires de mots dont le sens est opposé l'un à l'autre, comme disons: tout à fait soigné et tout à fait négligé. On vous demande de décrire quelqu'un avec qui vous avez travaillé ou avec qui vous travaillez maintenant en encerclant l'un des 8 chiffres placés sur la ligne entre la paire de mots.

Chacun des chiffres exprime des degrés, en allant d'un extrême à l'autre, d'une qualité de la personne que vous décrivez comme si c'était écrit:

1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8
tout à fait soigné	très soigné	assez soigné	peu soigné	peu négligé	assez négligé	très négligé	tout à fait négligé

Par exemple, si vous décriviez la personne avec qui vous êtes le moins capable de bien travailler et que vous pensez habituellement qu'elle est très soignée, vous encercleriez le chiffre 2 comme en haut.

Regardez aux deux mots à chaque extrémité d'une ligne avant d'encercler. Rappelez-vous qu'il n'y a pas de réponses correctes et de réponses fausses. Répondez rapidement; votre premier choix pour une réponse est probablement le meilleur. S'il vous plaît n'omettez aucun item et n'encerclez qu'une fois pour chacun.

QUESTIONNAIRE AU PRINCIPAL - SECTION A

Evaluation de l'atmosphère du personnel.

Employez chacune des échelles suivantes pour évaluer votre personnel comme groupe. Encerclez le chiffre indiquant votre évaluation de la position de votre peronnel dans chacune des échelles exactement comme vous avez vue.

---

serviable	--8-:-7-:-6-:-5-:-4-:-3-:-2-:-1--	non serviable
enthousiaste	--8-:-7-:-6-:-5-:-4-:-3-:-2-:-1--	moche
hostile	--1-:-2-:-3-:-4-:-5-:-6-:-7-:-8--	collaborateur
coopératif	--8-:-7-:-6-:-5-:-4-:-3-:-2-:-1--	non coopératif
distant	--1-:-2-:-3-:-4-:-5-:-6-:-7-:-8--	amical
froid	--1-:-2-:-3-:-4-:-5-:-6-:-7-:-8--	chaleureux
querelleur	--1-:-2-:-3-:-4-:-5-:-6-:-7-:-8--	harmonieux
confiant	--8-:-7-:-6-:-5-:-4-:-3-:-2-:-1--	hésitant
intéressant	--8-:-7-:-6-:-5-:-4-:-3-:-2-:-1--	ennuyant
pessimiste	--1-:-2-:-3-:-4-:-5-:-6-:-7-:-8--	optimiste

QUESTIONNAIRE AU PRINCIPAL - SECTION B

Evaluation du compagnon de travail le moins préferé.

Pensez à la personne avec laquelle vous pouvez le moins bien travailler. Ce peut être quelqu'un avec aui vous travaillez présentement, ou que vous avez connum dans le passé. Ce n'est pas nécessairement quelqu'un que vous aimez moins que les autres, mais ce doit être la personne avec laquelle vous avez le plus de difficulté à bien accomplie une tache.

Décrivez cetter personne comme vous la percevez:

---

lâcheur	--1-:-2-:-3-:-4-:-5-:-6-:-7-:-8--	tenace
énergique	--8-:-7-:-6-:-5-:-4-:-3-:-2-:-1--	indolent
non-intéressé	--1-:-2-:-3-:-4-:-5-:-6-:-7-:-8--	engagé
pratique	--8-:-7-:-6-:-5-:-4-:-3-:-2-:-1--	non pratique
intelligent	--8-:-7-:-6-:-5-:-4-:-3-:-2-:-1--	non intelligent
calme	--8-:-7-:-6-:-5-:-4-:-3-:-2-:-1--	émotif
confiant	--8-:-7-:-6-:-5-:-4-:-3-:-2-:-1--	hésitant
stable	--8-:-7-:-6-:-5-:-4-:-3-:-2-:-1--	instable
bon coeur	--8-:-7-:-6-:-5-:-4-:-3-:-2-:-1--	coeur dur
faible	--1-:-2-:-3-:-4-:-5-:-6-:-7-:-8--	fort
responsable	--8-:-7-:-6-:-5-:-4-:-3-:-2-:-1--	irresponsable
mature	--8-:-7-:-6-:-5-:-4-:-3-:-2-:-1--	immature
osé	--1-:-2-:-3-:-4-:-5-:-6-:-7-:-8--	timide
ingrat	--1-:-2-:-3-:-4-:-5-:-6-:-7-:-8--	reconnaissant
impatient	--1-:-2-:-3-:-4-:-5-:-6-:-7-:-8--	patient
irréfléchi	--1-:-2-:-3-:-4-:-5-:-6-:-7-:-8--	réfléchi
ouvert	--8-:-7-:-6-:-5-:-4-:-3-:-2-:-1--	fermé

QUESTIONNAIRE AU PRINCIPAL - SECTION B (2)

négligent	--1-:-2-:-3-:-4-:-5-:-6-:-7-:-8--	soigneux
affable	--8-:-7-:-6-:-5-:-4-:-3-:-2-:-1--	irascible
vantard	--1-:-2-:-3-:-4-:-5-:-6-:-7-:-8--	modeste

APPENDIX B ENGLISH

Some questions about the principalship in schools of the Montreal Catholic School Commission. Answer Yes or No to each of the following questions by checking the appropriate line.

(1) Can a principal recommend teacher reward and punishment to his superiors? Yes___ No___

(2) Can a principal reward or punish teachers on his own? Yes___ No___

(3) Can a principal recommend promotion or demotion of teachers? Yes___ No___

(4) Does a principal's special knowledge allow him to decide how teachers are to proceed on their jobs? Yes___ No___

(5) Can principals give teachers a general idea of what they are to do? Yes___ No___

(6) Can a principal specifically instruct teachers concerning what they are to do? Yes___ No___

(7) Is an important part of a principal's job to motivate his teachers? Yes___ No___

(8) Is it an important part of a principal's job to evaluate teacher performance? Yes___ No___

(9) Do principals have a great deal of knowledge about the jobs under them, but require teachers to do them? Yes___ No___

(10) Can a principal supervise and evaluate teachers' work? Yes___ No___

(11) Does a principal know both his own and teachers' jobs so that he could finish a teacher's work himself if it were necessary and he had enough time? Yes___ No___

APPENDIX B FRENCH

Quelques questions au sujet du principalat dans les écoles de la Commission des Ecoles catholiques de Montréal. Répondez Oui ou Non à chacune des questions suivantes en pointant la ligne qui convient.

(1) Le principal a le droit recommander à ses supérieurs de punir ou de récompenser un de ses subordonnés. Oui___ Non___

(2) Le principal a le droit de lui-même récompenser ou punir un de ses subordonnés. Oui___ Non___

(3) Le principal a le droit recommander une promotion ou une démotion pour un de ses subordonnés. Oui___ Non___

(4) Les connaissances particulières d'un principal lui permette de décider comment ses subordonnés doivent conduire leur travail. Oui___ Non___

(5) Le principal a le droit de donner à ses subordonnés une idée générale de ce qu'ils ont à faire. Oui___ Non___

(6) Le principal a le droit de donner à ses subordonnés des directions spécifiques par rapport à leur tâche. Oui___ Non___

(7) Motiver ses subordonnés est une partie importante de la tâche du principal. Oui___ Non___

(8) Evaluer le rendement de ses subordonnés est une partie importante de la tâche du principal. Oui___ Non___

(9) Le principal a une connaissance étendue du travail à faire mais exige que ses subordonnés le fasse. Oui___ Non___

(10) Le principal a le pouvoir de superviser et d'évaluer le travail de ses subordonnés. Oui___ Non___

APPENDIX B FRENCH (2)

(11) Le principal connait son travail et celui de ses subordonnés de telle sorte qu'il pourrait finir le travail d'un subordonné lui-même si nécessaire et qu'il en ait le loisir. Oui___ Non___

APPENDIX C ENGLISH

SCHOOL RATING SCALE

School
Code
Number

_____

_____(1) Outstanding

_____(2) Very Good

_____(3) Slightly Above Average

_____(4) Slightly Below Average

_____(5) Poor

_____(6) Very Poor

APPENDIX C FRENCH

ECHELLE EVALUATIVE DES ECOLES

Code de
l'école

_____

_____(1) Incomparable

_____(2) Très bon

_____(3) Légèrement au-dessus de la normale

_____(4) Légèrement sous la normale

_____(5) Pauvre

_____(6) Très pauvre

APPENDIX D ENGLISH

SUPERVISORY PRACTICES

All questions in this section refer to practices followed thoughout the 1967-68 school year.

In staff meeting, what important, in terms of time and emphasis, would you estimate is attached to the discussion of matters directly related to the improvement of teaching? (discussion of classroom problems raised by teachers, new methods and curricula).

_____(1) All important.
_____(2) Of major importance.
_____(3) Quite important.
_____(4) Somewhat important.
_____(5) Of slight importance.
_____(6) Unimportant.

In your estimation, what proportion of matters discussed at staff meetings is initiated by staff members?

_____(1) More than 80%
_____(2) 60% to 80%
_____(3) 40% to 60%
_____(4) 20% to 40%
_____(5) Less than 20%
_____(6) None

How many staff committees have been appointed in your school to study problems relating to teaching or curricula?

_____(1) Five or more committees
_____(2) Four.
_____(3) Three.
_____(4) Two.
_____(5) One.
_____(6) None

Since school opened last fall how many visits has your principal made to your classroom for the particular purpose of observing you at work with your class? Please check one.

_____(1) Five or more times.
_____(2) Four times.
_____(3) Three times.
_____(4) Twice.
_____(5) Once.
_____(6) Not at all.

What was the average length of the visit(s)?

_____(1) Less than five minutes.
_____(2) 5 to 10 minutes.
_____(3) 10 to 15 minutes.
_____(4) 15 to 30 minutes.
_____(5) Over 30 minutes.
_____(6) Not applicable, no visit.

With respect to the visit(s) in general, what part did the principal take in classroom activities?

_____(1) None; he tried to be as inconspicuous as possible throughout.
_____(2) He made one or two brief remarks (upon entering and/or leaving).
_____(3) He participated briefly in some of the class discussions.
_____(4) He played a fair part in some of the activities of the class.
_____(5) He played a prominent role in the activities of the class.
_____(6) Not applicable, no visit.

Have you, at your principal's request, gone to the principal's office to discuss teaching matters with him?

_____(1) Seven or more times since school opened.
_____(2) Five or six times.
_____(3) Three or four times.
_____(4) Twice.
_____(5) Once.
_____(6) Not at all.

Do you feel that teachers have a share in making decisions regarding the operation of the school?

_____(1) At all times.
_____(2) At most times.

_____(3) To a large extent.
_____(4) To a fair extent.
_____(5) They have a minor share.
_____(6) They have no real part in making decisions.

The principal prescribes teaching methods,

_____(1) For all our work.
_____(2) For most of our work.
_____(3) In certain important areas.
_____(4) Sometimes.
_____(5) Rarely.
_____(6) Never.

On an average, the principal interrupts lessons by using the Public Address System,

_____(1) Never.
_____(2) Once a month.
_____(3) Once a week.
_____(4) Several times a week.
_____(5) Once a day.
_____(6) Several times a day.

Do you feel that your principal applies pressure to get teachers to work harder?

_____(1) Yes, very much so.
_____(2) To a considerable extent.
_____(3) To a fair extent.
_____(4) Occasionally.
_____(5) Rarely.
_____(6) I am not conscious of any pressure being applied.

INFORMATION ABOUT YOU AND YOUR SCHOOL

How many years of training are you credited with for salary purposes? (Please drop fractional years).

_____(1) 13 years
_____(2) 14 years
_____(3) 15 years
_____(4) 16 years
_____(5) 17 years
_____(6) 18 years

Compared with other schools known to you, how good is the total job your school does in educating the students who come to it? (check one).

_____(1) Outstanding.
_____(2) Very good.
_____(3) Slightly a ove average.
_____(4) Slightly below average.
_____(5) Poor.
_____(6) Very poor.

How well satisfied are you with all aspects of your teaching situation in your present school? (check one).

_____(1) Enthusiastic.
_____(2) Satisfied.
_____(3) Fairly well satisfied.
_____(4) Somewhat dissatisfied.
_____(5) Dissatisfied.
_____(6) Very dissatisfied.

APPENDIX D FRENCH

PRATIQUES DE SUPERVISION

Toutes les questions de cette section se rapportent aux pratiques en force pour l'année scolaire 1967-68.

Dans les réunions de personnel quel poids, en terme de temps et d'importance, estimeriez-vous est attribué à la discussion de l'amélioration de l'enseignement? (discussion de problèmes de la classe suggérés par les professeurs, nouvelles méthodes et programmes).

_____(1) tout-à-fait important.
_____(2) importance majeure.
_____(3) très important.
_____(4) relativement important.
_____(5) peu important.
_____ 6) non important.

Selon vous, quelle proportion des sujets discutés aux réunions de personnel est initié par le personnel?

_____(1) plus de 80%.
_____(2) de 60% à 80%.
_____(3) de 40% à 60%.
_____(4) de 20% à 40%.
_____(5) moins de 20%.
_____(6) aucune.

Combien de comités de professeurs (ou groupe d'étude) ont été organisés dans votre école pour étudier les problèmes d'enseignement et de programmes?

_____(1) cinq comités et plus.
_____(2) quatre.
_____(3) trois.
_____(4) deux.
_____(5) un.
_____(6) aucun.

Depuis l'ouverture de l'école, en septembre 1967, combien de fois votre principal a-t-il visité votre classe pour vous observer au travail?

_____(1) cinq fois ou plus.
_____(2) quatre fois.
_____(3) trois fois.
_____(4) deux fois.
_____(5) une fois.
_____(6) aucune visite.

Quelle fut la durée moyenne des visites?

_____(1) moins de 5 minutes.
_____(2) 5 à 10 minutes.
_____(3) 10 à 15 minutes.
_____(4) 15 à 30 minutes.
_____(5) plus de 30 minutes.
_____(6) non applicable - pas de visite.

En général durant les visites, quelle participation active le principal a-t-il pris dans les activités de la classe?

_____(1) aucune, il essaya d'être le plus discret possible tout le temps.
_____(2) il fit 1 ou 2 brèves remarques (en arrivant et/ou en quittant).
_____(3) il participa brièvement à quelques unes des discussions de la class .
_____(4) il joua un rôle assez important dans quelques unes des activités de la classe.
_____(5) il joua un rôle très important dans quelques unes des activités de la classe.
_____(6) non-applicable - pas de visite.

A la demande de votre principal, avez-vous été à son bureau pour discuter de sujets pédagogiques avec lui?

_____(1) sept fois ou plus depuis septembre.
_____(2) cinq ou six fois.
_____(3) trois ou quatre fois.
_____(4) deux fois.
_____(5) une fois.
_____(6) jamais.

Avez-vous l'impression que les professeurs participent aux prises de décision touchant la conduite de l'école?

_____(1) tout le temps.
_____(2) la plus part du temps.
_____(3) très souvent.
_____(4) assez souvent.
_____(5) peu souvent.
_____(6) ils n'ont rien a voir à la prise des décisions.

Le principal prescrit les méthodes d'enseignement:

_____(1) pour tout votre travail.
_____(2) pour la plupart de votre travail.
_____(3) dans certains domaines importants.
_____(4) quelques fois.
_____(5) rarement.
_____(6) jamais.

En général le principal interromp les classes en employant le système d'intercommunication:

_____(1) jamais.
_____(2) une fois par mois.
_____(3) une fois par semaine.
_____(4) une fois par jour.
_____(5) plusieurs fois par jour.
_____(6) non-applicable - pas d'intercommunication

Avez-vous l'impression que votre principal fait pression sur les professeurs pour les faire travail er plus fort?

_____(1) oui, beaucoup.
_____(2) considerablement.
_____(3) passablement.
_____(4) occasionellement.
_____(5) rarement.
_____(6) je n'ai pas l'impression que des pressions sont exercées.

RENSEIGNEMENTS A VOTRE SUJET ET AU SUJET DE VOTRE ECOLE

Combien d'années de scolarité vous sont comptées pour évaluer votre salaire? (Laissez tomber les fraction).

_____(1) 12 ans.
_____(2) 13 ans.
_____(3) 14 ans.
_____(4) 15 ans.
_____(5) 16 ans.
_____(6) 17 ans.

Si vous comparez votre école avec d'autres que vous connaissez comment évaluez-vous la valeur de l' éducation total qu'elle donne aux étudiants qui la fréquentent?

_____(1) sans pareil.
_____(2) très bon.
_____(3) légèrement au dessus de la moyenne.
_____(4) légèrement sous la moyenne.
_____(5) pauvre.
_____(6) très pauvre.

Quel est le degré de votre satisfaction personnelle quand vous évaluez la totalité de vos conditions d'enseignement dans votre école actuelle?

_____(1) enthousiaste.
_____(2) satisfait.
_____(3) assez bien satisfait.
_____(4) quelque peu mécontent.
_____(5) mécontent.
_____(6) très mécontent.

APPENDIX E ENGLISH

LETTER TO PRINCIPALS

University of Alberta
Edmonton, Alta.
May, 1968

Dear _____:

Mr. Walter Murphy and the M.C.S.C. have very generously given me permission to carry out the research necessary for my doctoral dissertation in the elementary schools of the Commission. I would appreciate your help as well.

The study is of principal leadership and some of its correlates and is based on a social psychological theory which has been used successfully in a wide variety of organizations, including schools.

Your particular cooperation would involve two things: First, the completion and return (in the envelope provided) of the enclosed PRINCIPAL'S QUESTIONNAIRE, which should take you no more than five minutes. Second, the distribution of the teacher questionnaires (which are being sent under separate cover) and the return of the IBM scoring sheets in the envelope provided for that purpose. You may wish to distribute and return these materials yourself, or you may prefer to appoint a staff member, perhaps the Key Teacher, to do this.

Needless to say, the study provides for the complete anonymity of all those involved and no allusions, direct or indirect, to individuals or to particular schools will be made in the study.

Thank you for your cooperation in this study. I feel sure that the results, to be communicated to you later, will prove interesting to you and will be useful to the profession.

Sincerely yours,

Robert E. Lavery

APPENDIX E FRENCH

LETTER TO PRINCIPALS

l'Université d'Alberta
Edmonton, Alberta
mai, 1968

Cher Principal,

La Commission des Ecoles Catholiques de Montréal m'a généreusement donné la permission de conduire la recherche pour ma thèse doctorale dans ses écoles élémentaires. Vous noterez également l'excellent accueil que me fait votre Association des Principaux de Montréal. Cette étude se rapporte au leadership du principal et à ses attributs. Le modèle employé a été largement appliqué et avec succès aux U.S.A., en Belgique, et en Alberta.

Le questionnaire a été soigneusement préparé de sorte qu'il demande très peu de votre temps - moins de 5 minutes. Le traitement des données sera tel que l'anonymité la plus complète aussi bien des personnes que des écoles est assurée

On vous demande deux choses: remplir votre questionnaire et voir à ce que vos professeurs remplissent le leur. Auriez-vous donc l'obligeance de voir à ce que chaque professeur de votre école reçoive un questionnaire et une feuille-réponse. Assureriez-vous également la cuillette de ces feuilles-réponses et me les feriez-vous parvenir en même temps que votre propre questionnaire rempli. Si vous pouviez faire tout cela dans les prochains jours ce me serait très utile.

Je vous remercie de votre précieuse collaboration.

Sincèrement,

Robert E. Lavery

APPENDIX F ENGLISH

LETTER TO TEACHERS

University of Alberta
Edmonton, Alta.
May, 1968

Dear Teacher:

Mr. Walter Murphy and the Montreal Catholic School Commission have very genrously given me permission to conduct the research necessary for my doctoral dissertation in the elementary schools of the Commission. I would appreciate your cooperation, too.

The questionnaires have been carefully designed to be totally anonymous and to take up no more than ten minutes of your time. You are simply asked to indicate your reply to the twenty-five items on the questionnaire by putting a pencil mark in the appropriate space on the red-printed scoring sheet. For the first 14 items there are six choices. There are 14 horizontal numbered rows and 6 columns, also numbered on the answer sheet. You simply put a pencil mark through the appropriate space. For example: If, in reply to question 5: What was the average length of the visit(s)?" your answer is 15 to 30 minutes, this is answer number 4 and so opposite the number 5 (for the fifth question) in the margin of the answer sheet you go over to the fourth column and put a stroke through the space provided:

5 ==1== ==2== ==3== —4— ==5== ==6==

For questions 15 to 25 inclusive there are only two choices possible, "yes" or "no". If you choose "yes", place your pencil mark in column 1. If you choose "no", place your mark in column 2.

Please do not write anything else on the answer sheet and please use a HB pencil to make the marks.

Return the scoring sheet to the principal or to his appointee who will forward them to me. Throw away the questionnaires.

Thank you for your cooperation in this study. The findings, which will be communicated to you, promise to be both interesting in themselves and useful to the profession.

Sincerely yours,

Robert E. Lavery.

APPENDIX F FRENCH

LETTER TO TEACHERS

L'Université d'Alberta
Edmonton, Alberta
mai, 1968

Cher Professeur,

La Commission des Ecoles Catholiques de Montréal m'a très généreusement donné la permission de conduire les recherches nécessaires à ma thèse doctorale dans ses écoles élémentaires. L'Alliance des Professeurs de Montréal m'a pour sa part gracieusement assuré de la collaboration de ses membres. J'apprécierais donc votre propre collaboration.

Les questionnaires ont été soigneusement préparés de telle sorte que l'anonymat le plus complet est assuré et qu'il ne faut pas plus de 10 minutes pour les remplir. On vous demande simplement d'indiquer votre réponse aux 25 questions en faisant une marque au crayon dans l'espace approprié sur la feuille-réponse imprimée en rouge. Les 14 premières questions offrent 6 choix. La feuille-réponse présente 14 rangées horizontales numérotées de 1 à 14 et 7 colonnes verticales numérotées de 1 à 7. Vous marque simplement au crayon dans l'espace approprié pour votre réponse. Par exemple, à la question 5: "Quelle fut la durée moyenne des visites?" si votre réponse est "15 à 30 minutes" vous n'avez qu'à placer un trait au crayon entre les lignes pointillées de la rangée 5 à la colonne 4 comme ceci:

5 ==1== ==2== ==3== ==4== ==5== ==6==

Pour les questions no.15 à 25 inclusivement il n'y a que 2 choix possibles: "oui" ou "non". Si vous choisissez "oui", placez votre marque dans la colonne 1. Si votre choix est "non", placez votre marque dans la colonne 2.

S'il vous plait n'écrivez rien d'autre sur la feuille-réponse et employez un crayon HB pour répondre.

Retournez la feuille-réponse au responsable pour votre école qui s'occupera de me la faire parvenir. Jetez le questionnaire.

Merci infiniment pour votre collaboration dans cette étude.

Sincèrement vôtre,

Robert E. Lavery.